

# The Nation.

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## The Week.

THE Chicago *Tribune*, though it recurs to Mr. Blaine's qualifications for the State Department and our objections to him, fails to mention any legislation which he "shaped or commended" in addition to that for the benefit of the Little Rock & Fort Smith Railroad. It enquires in what manner the objection that he is not a lawyer becomes "serious" by being "one of several," and why it has little weight when not "one of several"? Well, in this way: If he had much "acquaintance with foreign countries," instead of having none; if he had much "diplomatic experience," instead of having none; if he had a profound knowledge, instead of a very superficial one, if any, of "the needs of foreign commerce"; if he had been identified with any "home question of interest or importance," instead of being identified with none, his not being a lawyer would be a small matter. For the absence of all these things his being a lawyer, like Mr. Edmunds or Mr. Thurman or Mr. Trumbull or Mr. Evarts, say, would go a great way to compensate. But when he is neither lawyer, diplomatist, legislator, economist, nor politician in the best sense of the word, and is besides fond of the "reportorial" view of public questions, his nomination does seem "serious." We have made this as plain as we can, and hope the Chicago *Tribune* will acknowledge the pains we have taken by giving us a list of Mr. Blaine's measures while in Congress, over which "attorneys" are now "hag-gling."

The President's Commission to enquire into the condition and wishes of both portions of the Ponca tribe have made their report, of which neither the text nor the testimony taken has been published in full, so that the weight to be attached to it cannot be estimated at present. Four conclusions are announced—two asserting that the removal of the tribe was an inexcusable wrong; a third, that the yearning of the main body in the Indian Territory to return to Dakota was strong up to within a few months, but yielded to "discouragement" (videlicet on the part of the Secretary of the Interior) and "other prominent considerations" (videlicet a money bribe), when the head men concluded to stay where they were, and persuaded the majority to acquiesce; a fourth, that the refugees in the old Dakota home are resolved not to go back, are on friendly terms with the Sioux, and, aided by private benevolence, have made good progress towards agricultural self-support, lacking only instruction in the mechanic arts and in morality and religion. The Commission recommend that the Government allot each man, woman, and child 160 acres of land in either Territory according to individual option, during one year, in which interval free communication shall be permitted between the two portions of the tribe; that the titles be made inalienable and free from taxes or other encumbrances for thirty years; that the United States take immediate steps to extinguish the Sioux title to the Dakota lands of the Poncas; that the annual appropriation be continued, but shared with the refugees (contrary to the present practice); and that "all Indians" have an opportunity of appealing to the courts for the protection and vindication of the rights of persons and property.

It is alleged, and with apparent reason, that this report was inspired by Mr. Walter Allen, of Newton, Mass., who also presents a report of his own, which still further oversteps the limits of the original enquiry. He rehearses the whole story of the Ponca removal, and accuses Secretary Schurz of having executed it in spite of "all the essential and relevant facts" having been "brought to his attention in due time." He then controverts the official reasons for thinking it best that the Poncas should not return North; declares that their assent to this arrangement was compulsory, and says their friends at the North were met by public indifference and "the taunts of men in high places," and their best friend (Mr. Tibbles) was arrested in trying to visit them. He complains that while the President had assured the Commission that pending their enquiry the tribe should not be permitted to bind

itself, the agreement just entered into by the chiefs at Washington is "wholly incompatible" with the report above cited. The last third of Mr. Allen's argument, for it is not a report in any sense, mentions a few statistics for the purpose of showing how much better the Dakota reservation is than the other, though he admits that drouth and grass-hoppers afflict it; and relates a part of the conferences in the two places in order to show that mercenary considerations have influenced the main tribe, whereas the feelings of the Dakota refugees find expression "in terms of superb scorn," or, "more contemptuously still," in refusal to talk with those who would induce them to return.

The animus of the report with reference to Secretary Schurz led that officer to appear at a session of the special Senate Committee on the Poncas, where two of the Commissioners were to be examined, namely, Messrs. Stickney and Allen; and he was permitted to put them questions, which he did with the manuscript copy of the report in his hands. He endeavored to show that the conclusions and recommendations of the report were not in accordance with the evidence taken in the Indian Territory, portions of which he read, and which were certainly corroborative of his position. Asking Mr. Allen to substantiate from the record his insinuation that the desire of the Southern Poncas to stay was insincere, he was answered that "philosophical reasons" had prompted the conclusion embodied in a report which was supposed to be founded on observation of facts. Mr. Allen's discomfiture was such that he and Mr. Dawes, one of the committee, united the next day in a card declaring the Associated Press report garbled and unfair, and this elicited one from Mr. Schurz denying the charge, and warning those two gentlemen that when the full story appeared it would be all the worse for them. We shall not, in the present imperfect state of the evidence, comment further on this strange affair, which Mr. Dawes has meantime transferred to the Senate. We must, however, express our amazement that the close of Mr. Hayes's Administration finds a Cabinet officer whose character, if any one's, is above suspicion of falsehood or corruption, and is indeed remarkable for candor; who has acted up to the highest principles of civil-service reform in the conduct of his department, has expelled rascals from the Indian service, and been the first to call attention to the hardships of the Poncas, and urged indemnity upon Congress for years without kindling Mr. Dawes's sympathies or exciting his legislative activity, assailed with a violence appropriate to a perjured conspirator. The quarter from which it comes is not less astonishing, for in the long array of Massachusetts senators, governors, and untitled philanthropists who have worked themselves up to a white heat in contemplating Mr. Schurz, the most prominent have been implicated in recent adulation of General Grant, under whom Delano and the Indian King flourished unmolested; their chief organ in Boston was a Grant organ before the Chicago Convention; and it is hard not to believe that in their minds Mr. Schurz has never purged himself of the offence of opposing "Grantism" while yet a senator from Missouri.

Mr. Hayes is startling people by his appointments in the closing days of his term, because they cannot get at the principle which governs them. They are neither "machine," nor "anti-machine," nor civil-service reform appointments. Mr. Stanley Matthews has been nominated for the vacancy on the bench of the Supreme Court created by Judge Swayne's retirement. Mr. Matthews is a good lawyer, but he is not a distinguished lawyer in the proper sense of the term. At all events, he occupies no such position as a lawyer as will make up for his extraordinary want of judgment, and even knowledge, about a number of most important public questions. He might make a respectable judge in any court of inferior jurisdiction, but in a court of last resort, where his opinions could not be revised, he would be singularly out of place. He showed, during his brief term in the Senate, an ignorance about currency and finance which might almost be called childish, and opposed with great heat the legislation for the protection of Government rights against the Pacific railroads. As a politician he has advocated the permanency of the greenbacks, the payment of the public debt in depreciated silver, and the unlimited coinage of silver. In fact, there has been hardly

any question regarding the relations of the Government to its creditors during the last seven years in which he has not been as wrong as he could well be, and sometimes dangerously wrong. A man might be so great a lawyer as to make these defects comparatively trifling as objections to his being made a member of the Supreme Court, but Mr. Matthews occupies a rank which makes them fatal. He was, besides, sufficiently active in overcoming the objections to Mr. Hayes's inauguration caused by the Louisiana frauds to make his nomination by Mr. Hayes for a high judicial office very unbecoming, to say the least.

The New York *Tribune*, a fortnight ago, feeling the necessity of saying something about civil-service reform, and not knowing well what to say, declared that the chief anxiety of the "idealists" who were advocating it was to establish "a system of competitive examinations, retrospective in its operation, to which all subordinate officials in the service holding their places by appointment should be subjected," and then commented with proper horror on the confusion which would thus be created. We hope, for the sake of his own soul, that the writer of this knew, when he wrote, of somebody—one person would do—who advocated a system of competitive examinations "retrospective in its operation." We know of none, and none is known to the general public, so that he must either have written on a subject with which he possessed little or no acquaintance, or have invented a charge which he knew would have a plausible sound. He seems to have been so much encouraged by the impunity which attended this little transgression that on Wednesday, the 26th ult., he boldly declared that Mr. Hayes's having appointed a postmaster in Hartford on the recommendation of General Hawley, the newly-elected Senator, instead of one supported by a large number of leading citizens of the place, showed that he (Mr. Hayes) considered the attempt at making nominations without consulting Senators and Representatives a failure. We know nothing of the facts of this particular case. We think, inasmuch as General Hawley was Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions in the Convention which nominated Mr. Hayes, and those resolutions strongly denounced Congressional interference with the appointing power, it is not likely that he demanded the Hartford post-office as one of his perquisites; and we know of no civil-service reform theory which denies the President the right of consulting a Senator about an appointment and taking his advice. But even if Mr. Hayes had given Mr. Hawley the post-office, it would not follow that the former considered the plan of cutting off Congressional interference with the patronage a failure. Mr. Hayes has during the past year pardoned or reduced the sentences of thirty-one army officers found guilty of drunkenness and much resulting scandalous misconduct. There is no worse offence in an army officer, because it leads to all others, and there is no offence on which we should expect Mr. Hayes to look more sternly. Are we to conclude, therefore, from this use of the pardoning power, that he considers drunkenness a slight offence, or the drunkards a valuable body of men for military purposes, and the existing legislation against military drunkenness a mistake? What we deduce from this sorry performance is simply that Mr. Hayes is weak and irresolute, and if he has been dividing patronage with General Hawley we shall explain it in the same way.

Though the Senatorial dead-lock in Pennsylvania still continues, the election in Tennessee settles the complexion of the next Senate, which will accordingly have a Democratic majority of two (instead of ten) whenever party lines are strictly drawn. Apart from the accidents of absence, sickness, and death, however, it is doubtful if this majority can be counted upon except for organization at the outset. Mr. Howell E. Jackson, the Senator-elect from Tennessee, promises to be a member upon whom the caucus will have the slightest possible hold. Our information is that he is equal intellectually to any man now in the Senate, and that though well past middle life he never made a political speech or took the least active part in politics until last October, when he was impelled to make a canvass for the Legislature by a conviction that something must be done to stem the tide of repudiation in Tennessee. He had no thought of abandoning his legal career for a political career. "No such man," writes one who has known him for twenty years, "has appeared in national (or State) politics from the South since the war." It is unnecessary to add that his Democracy has nothing in

common with that Southern variety known as Bourbon; but we should state that Mr. Jackson is highly esteemed by men of both parties in Tennessee, in spite of his being a purist in politics.

The attempt of the State of Virginia to repudiate, by withdrawing from its coupons the privilege of being receivable for taxes, has been given its death-blow by the Supreme Court in the case of Hartman v. Greenow. Under the Funding Act of 1871 the coupons were made receivable for taxes due the State. In 1872 the State passed an act declaring that nothing should be received for taxes but coin and treasury or national-bank notes. This statute the Virginia Court of Appeals held to be unconstitutional, as impairing the obligation of contracts. In 1873 the State passed a new act, providing that whenever coupons were presented in payment for taxes there should be deducted from the amount one-half of one per cent. of the market value of the bonds from which the coupons had been cut. This act was slightly modified in 1874, and re-enacted in its original form in 1876. After the passage of the last act Hartman tendered some coupons for taxes, and on the treasurer's refusal to receive them without a deduction of one-half of one per cent., applied for a mandamus to the Virginia Court of Appeals. This was refused by a divided court, and he thereupon appealed to the Supreme Court at Washington. That court now holds that Hartman is entitled to his mandamus, on the ground that the legislation of the State impaired the contract made with its creditors. This is a very important decision, as it not merely decides the question of the receivability of the coupons, but gives a summary and effectual remedy to the creditor.

The annual city charter has been introduced in the New York Legislature—this time by Senator McCarthy—and has been discussed with the usual gravity by newspapers. It makes very radical changes, the principal being the bestowal of supreme and undivided appointing power on the Mayor. The scheme calls for only one remark before it joins the other annual charters in the legislative garret, which is, that before any mayor with such powers could be nominated or elected he would have to make "bargains" either with the Machine Republicans, or the Tammany or Anti-Tammany Democrats, or with all three, which, if carried out, would make his responsibility a farce. If not carried out, he would be promptly legislated out of office as a "Judas," and a new charter would be enacted by the next Legislature, which, to provide against a repetition of such treachery, would restore the confirming power to the Board of Aldermen. Nothing will ever put a stop to this comedy but the embodiment of a framework of municipal government in the State constitution.

The New York banks gained in total reserve during the week, but as the liabilities increased they lost in surplus reserve, and the money market was no lower than during the preceding week. The London money market was rather more active, and the rates for sterling bills advanced so that there was no profit in importing gold. The condition of the exchanges between this city and London has been considerably affected by the movement of securities; while the English demand for our securities continues, it is greater for the low-priced stocks than for sound investments, and the rise here in the market price of the latter has been so enormous during the last few months that foreign holders are now returning them and apparently putting their profits in the low-priced stocks, like Erie and Ontario & Western—the latter being an unfinished line which in the fulness of time will connect New York and Buffalo. It will be remembered that at the beginning of the year an effort was made to introduce a new method for quoting sterling bills—that is, to quote them by the fraction of the pound rather than by so many dollars and cents to the pound sterling. This new method was opposed by the various trade exchanges whose members make the great bulk of commercial bills drawn, and on the first day of February it was abandoned by the leading bankers. The week at the Stock Exchange was a repetition of many others. The very large speculators, like Mr. Vanderbilt and Mr. Gould, have schemes on hand which commit their influence to the support of prices; and the public at large are as crazy to buy as in the wildest times. Notwithstanding all this, the stock market was what the brokers call "feverish," although prices at the close of the week were generally higher than at the beginning. No



progress has been made in refunding legislation, but the sentiment in favor of a 3½ per cent. bond is daily becoming stronger.

The editor of the Cincinnati *Herald and Presbyter*, a religious paper, went to see General Garfield at Mentor the other day, and has published a characteristic account of the visit. When he saw him, he told him his object in coming was "to get a physical basis, real or imaginary, for his ideas of men and places," and then went on to pronounce General Garfield's nomination "Providential," hinting at the same time that so were Blaine's and Sherman's and Grant's defeat. To which General Garfield replied that while believing in Providence he "shrank from the feeling" that so high a Power had taken a hand in nominating him. But the editor was not so timid, and insisted that though this shrinking was "natural," it would not do to be dominated by it; that the world was improving through the action of Providence, and that, therefore, "it was not presumptuous to note the action of Providence in his (General Garfield's) case." The General here seems to have thrown off his modesty and reserve and made ready for the Providential view of his case, by giving in his hearty adhesion to the editor's statement of the conditions of progress. The editor then asked him if he had enquired into the story of the eagle's alighting on his house in Washington on the day of the nomination. He said he had; that it was literally true; that this eagle, though eagles seldom leave "the mountains and forests," came into Washington City, doubtless at great personal inconvenience, and so timed his arrival as to "light down" on the Garfield house at "the very time of the nomination, as near as we could judge of the difference in time between Chicago and Washington." The incident would have been complimentary and Providential enough if the eagle had gone by the Washington clocks, but there was a delicacy in his calculating the difference of time, and coming down by the Chicago time, which is most impressive. It is to be remarked, too, that if he knew before he left the mountain or forest that Garfield was going to be nominated, before "the break" came, either he cannot have been the eagle of earthly ornithology or he was selected on this occasion to be the instrument of a miracle. The editor exclaimed, "How strange and interesting that was!" which was the least he could say under the circumstances. General Garfield then gave him more of the same by telling how, before his nomination, he stuffed in haste a Moody and Sankey tract into his pocket, and when he subsequently drew it out mixed up with a number of telegrams, it was so folded that one sentence only appeared on the outside: "The stone which the builders rejected, etc." He, however, again resolutely declined to "apply such a passage to himself." Seeing his reluctance the *Herald and Presbyter* did not insist, but mildly remarked, "These are strange and interesting coincidences indeed."

The eagle story certainly merits the attention of naturalists. Is there any other record of an eagle or any bird on this continent having shown any outward sign of an interest in politics or devotion to a particular candidate? Has any bird ever hovered over a hall in which a convention was sitting? Also, let us ask, if an eagle or other bird hanging round a candidate's house were killed, might not some valuable information about the prospects of the canvass be extracted from his entrails? Were the ancient augurs such fools after all as we have been in the habit of thinking them, and would it not be a good plan to attach a Presbyter and Herald to the White House to collect and interpret omens and signs?

The South African Boers have given the British Government two striking proofs already of the sincerity and determination of their resistance—the first by attacking and shooting down, a fortnight ago, a large part of a small detachment engaged in convoying a wagon train, and the second by repulsing Sir George Colley, in command of 800 infantry with some cavalry and artillery, when endeavoring to force one of the passes in the Drakenberg Mountains, leading to the plateau which composes the Transvaal. The first attack was a surprise, as there had been no formal declaration of hostilities, and the officer in command did not suppose himself in danger, and was given only two minutes after the summons to surrender to decide before fire was opened on him from all sides by an overwhelming force. This was treated in England

as an act of treachery and excited a good deal of exasperation, but the Boers might fairly plead that they had given long notice of their determination to resist, that they had exhausted pacific remonstrance, that usage did not call for any formal declaration of war, and that the force they assailed was making a movement on their soil which would have resulted to their disadvantage, and that it had become plain that blood would have to be shed in order to convince people in England that they were in earnest. The affair did not, however, do anything to raise their military reputation, which was held very cheap by all the British officers who had seen anything of them in the late Zulu operations. Colley's repulse will probably help the Boer cause more than anything which has happened. In England it will increase public respect for them, and abroad, and especially in Holland, it will deepen the sympathy with which their struggle is watched. They will, of course, be beaten. Reinforcements are going forward which they cannot resist, and which will deprive many a farm-house on the "veldt" of fathers and brothers. It is a deplorable business for a Ministry which contains Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright to be mixed up in. The only excuse they can offer is that it is a legacy from the Tories, and that the British in the presence of a large and warlike native population cannot afford, in the interest of future peace and tranquillity, to be beaten by anybody. Moreover the Boers, shortly before the outbreak of the Zulu war, behaved in a way that seemed almost like a surrender of their independence. They had quarrelled with the Zulus, and were on the point of being attacked in overwhelming force by Cetewayo, and had neither money nor organized force to resist him. Things were in this condition when Sir Bartle Frere's Jingo eye fell upon them, and it is not wonderful if they seemed ripe to him for annexation. In this last affair they seem to have fought with desperate courage, and every one who cares for the fame of great races must be glad that they have shown themselves worthy of their Dutch ancestors, and that they have not forgotten how to die without the hope of winning.

The British House of Commons is at this writing laboring in the throes of "obstruction" over the first reading of the Coercion Bill. The obstruction will probably last until all the Parnellite members have spoken, and they number about thirty. A division must then come. But in the Committee of the Whole there is no limit to the number of times a member can speak, and it is difficult to see how, in the absence of a resort to the previous question, from which, as our London correspondent points out, all parties shrink, the bill is to be passed within any reasonable time. The Parnellites, in the meantime, seem to say and do everything they can think of to alienate English public opinion. With better management on this point there is little doubt they could have made it impossible to pass the Coercion Bill without producing the Land Bill. In fact, the logic of the situation is all on their side. The outrages the Coercion Bill is designed to suppress are due to popular discontent. The justification of the Land Bill is that it will put an end to this discontent. Then why not produce it at once and let coercion alone? The answer undoubtedly is that the Land Bill is not ready, and that the performances of the Land League are in the meantime so outrageous that English opinion will not brook further delay, so the Coercion Bill is brought in, as it were, to fill up the time. The Land League has one defence for its lawlessness, and that is somewhat like the excuse of the Boers for fighting—viz., that the complaints of any but Englishmen make little impression on the English mind unless they are enforced by some kind of violence. Somebody has to be killed or his house burnt before they will believe that there is anything wrong worth notice—a result probably of a certain sluggishness of imagination. In the case of the Irish this indifference has been deepened by the extravagance of Irish rhetoric and by the large comic element in all Irish agitation. The Devon Commission, composed, we believe, entirely of landlords, some of them English, thirty years ago reported strongly in favor of everything Mr. Gladstone's Land Bill is likely to contain, and was based on the same evidence, but it never received the slightest attention from Parliament. Having exhausted their eloquence, the Irish begin shooting landlords, cutting off cows' tails, and blowing up barracks, and threaten to seize the Crown jewels, and forthwith the whole English nation begins to study "the Irish question" with deep and conscientious interest.

## THE NEW TREATY WITH CHINA.

IN weighing the censure which the Secretary of State has incurred, in our own correspondence and elsewhere, it must be borne in mind that there could be no restriction of Chinese immigration which would not be a violation of the Treaty of 1868. That a law involving such violation would be passed, and by a majority too strong to be killed, like its predecessor, by a veto, was more than probable. A mere suggestion of opposition to such a modification of existing laws and of our treaty relations, in a letter purporting to come from a Presidential candidate, was enough to endanger seriously the chances of his election, and call from the mouth of a judge on the bench the opinion that such sentiments, if genuine, would subject their author to deserved reproach; and public opinion, in at least one powerful section of the country, was strong enough to lead the politicians of both parties to insert a plank in their platforms urging such a change. Clearly, then, it was Mr. Evarts's duty, as the head of the State Department, to avoid the possibility of Government's finding its laws and its treaty promises in direct opposition. Of all nations we could least afford to let ourselves be forced into such a position. In 1858, of the three Powers who entered into the Treaty with Japan the United States was the foremost to insist upon strict compliance with its terms, despite all internal laws and changes, and we forced the point by a show of arms. We went even further than this in the discussion over that long bill which England had to pay under the Treaty of 1871; for then, to the honor of our representatives be it said, we successfully established, against the reluctant admissions of Great Britain, the sound principle which until the precedent then laid down could not be called settled, that an internal statute could not override, not merely an express treaty stipulation, but even an *implied* principle of international law. Of course it is beside the point to say that our courts have long since settled that an act of Congress takes precedence of a treaty stipulation. To say that is simply to mark the bad faith of Congress in passing such an act, knowing that the officers of the law are bound to enforce such violations of international obligation.

It must appear, therefore, that it was sound policy to hasten to save the Government from this position of bad faith toward which it was drifting. For two years past the temper of Congress has shown unmistakably that, treaty or no treaty, veto or no veto, the immigration laws would soon be revised. In 1879, the bill restricting Chinese immigration passed both Houses by solid majorities—in the House of Representatives by a vote large enough to carry it over a veto. It was in vain that the attention of Senators and Representatives was called to the fact that conferences were going on looking to an early modification of the treaty. Mr. Booth professed to utter the sentiment of the Pacific slope when he said: "If it is necessary to break a treaty with China to save our blood from degradation, let it be broken," and added his belief that China would never willingly yield the modifications if asked. In vain it was urged that the United States had never broken a treaty but once, and then for reasons which justified the violation and after due notice given. Mr. Blaine, in a manner peculiarly his own, and as one who speaks with Vattel and Puffendorf at his tongue's end, assured his associates that China had already broken the treaty by permitting the exportation of slaves! The attempt to amend the bill by the temperate substitute of a dignified notice to the Emperor of China of the desire of the United States Government to modify the Treaty was lost, and so, pushed with indecent haste, the bill went through by an easy majority in the Senate and a two-to-one vote in the House. As every one knows, it was promptly vetoed by President Hayes. But since that time four other bills of the same nature have been introduced, although it was notorious that negotiations were pending concerning the modifications proposed, so wanton have been some of our representatives in their eagerness to "put themselves on record" as Sinophobists, at the expense of the nation's honor.

To negotiate the settlement and secure the confirmation of such a treaty as this, in view of probable legislation such as would lead to serious international complications, is practical statesmanship, and it is what Mr. Evarts was bound to do, whatever might be his private opinion as to the natural justice or injustice, "rank cowardice" or policy, of a possible change in our immigration laws. Indeed, a senator might

with perfect consistency vote to confirm this treaty, though intending to oppose a change in those laws. Moreover, the best class of Chinese in this country are not, and apparently never have been, opposed to such a change. The representatives of the "Six Companies" of San Francisco, who are alleged to have a monopoly of this "servile traffic," in an appeal to the chief of police for protection against a threatened riot, said, in 1876: "Regretting that the Chinese are so obnoxious to the citizens of this country, and quite willing to aid in seeking a repeal or modification of the existing treaty between China and the United States, yet being here under sacred treaty stipulations, we simply ask to be protected in our treaty rights." Again, in a memorial addressed to General Grant, when President, they said:

"But if the Chinese are considered detrimental to the best interests of this country, and if our presence here is offensive to the American people, let there be a modification of existing treaty relations between China and the United States, either prohibiting or limiting further Chinese immigration, and, if desirable, requiring also the gradual retirement of the Chinese people now here from this country. Such an arrangement, though not without embarrassments to both parties, we believe would not be altogether unacceptable to the Chinese Government, and doubtless it would be very acceptable to a certain class of people in this honorable country."

As to the good faith of the Chinese Government in relation to the opium traffic, it is a matter of fact that the Imperial Government from the beginning of the century has made strenuous efforts to abolish the trade by edicts, backed by the sanction of the severest penalties, issued in 1820, 1830, 1831, and 1832, and by the appointment of an Imperial Commissioner, Lin, who, in a remonstrance addressed to Queen Victoria and to all foreign nations in 1839, made this appeal: "Why do you bring to our lands the opium which in your lands is not made use of, by it defrauding men of their property and causing injury to their lives?" And he closed with the words: "I swear that I will progress with this matter from its beginning to its ending, and that not a thought of stopping half way shall for a moment be indulged!" The vigorous prosecution of his work by that commissioner led to the infamous "Opium War." As an earnest of their intentions, 20,283 chests which were handed over to the mandarins were not confiscated and sold, but destroyed. Prof. Douglas, writing in 1876, says: "From the time of its introduction into the country the Chinese Government has opposed the traffic, and on the occasion of the last revision of the Treaty (with England) by Sir Rutherford Alcock, Prince Kung and his colleagues made a vigorous stand against the clause which legalizes its introduction." We might point to Rule V., appended to the Treaty of 1858, in which the Chinese Government insisted that "the provisions of the Treaty of Tien-tsin, conferring privileges by virtue of the most-favored nation clause, so far as respects citizens of the United States going into the interior to trade on paying transit duties, shall not extend to the article of opium."

Then, as to the article relating to judicial proceedings, no one will deny that the privilege which we always insisted upon and still retain, of extra-territorial jurisdiction, is abnormal, and can be justly demanded by us "only until the passive state begins to show the inclination and power to protect the world-rights of foreigners." Yet we asked and obtained a further concession, namely, that in all trials before the court of the defendant's nationality, the official authority of the plaintiff's nationality should have "an honorable and convenient position in the court-house assigned to him"—something more than a mere form, as the commissioners show—with the great advantage, now for the first time gained, which permits the plaintiff's counsel to present, examine, and cross-examine witnesses. Finally, the Treaty cuts the ground from under those who oppose the naturalization, under proper restrictions and educational qualifications, of Chinamen already in this country. This amendment of our naturalization laws will bring them, as Charles Sumner strove so hard but unsuccessfully to do, in accord with the spirit of our Constitution and its amendments. On the other hand, the objection of Sinophobists that the Treaty is dangerous in that, *per se*, it permits the naturalization of Chinamen, is unfounded. It is not the nationality of a Chinaman which legally bars his acquiring citizenship, but his *color*, a statement which may surprise many who have thought that such an unjust, undemocratic, and un-American distinction was made impossible by the post-bellum amendments.



## THE DISAPPEARANCE OF "GREAT MEN" FROM PUBLIC LIFE.

THE recent election of Mr. Dawes as Senator from Massachusetts has given rise to some little discussion as to the falling off of "great men" in public life in the United States. The opposition to his election in the Massachusetts legislature seems to have been mainly based upon his insignificance—upon the impropriety of a community which once produced such statesmen as the Adamsses, Webster, John Davis, Quincy, Cushing, and Sumner now permitting itself to be represented by a gentleman who has never displayed in the Senate any marked ability or even independence of character. As compared with the election of Mr. "Tom" Platt by this State, the choice of Mr. Dawes must be considered respectable; for he has considerable experience, and in the House did much public service as chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means. But he is neither an Adams, nor a Webster, nor a Davis, nor a Quincy, nor a Sumner, and Col. Higginson was quite right in insisting that Massachusetts is "under-represented" at Washington, or, in other words, that if a Senator were chosen who fairly represented the level of civilization attained by the State it would not be Mr. Dawes. The *Times* of this city jeeringly suggests that if Massachusetts wishes to be represented at Washington by men like his predecessors, she ought to "raise" some more of them. "These men," it says, "rose to the highest place in the gift of their fellow-citizens because they were great in their several ways. When their legitimate successors appear, they too will go up to the head." The *Times* then goes on to make the benevolent suggestion that "possibly the whole race of mankind has been so lifted up that there is no longer any possibility for the uprising of any few conspicuous figures to dominate the dull level plain of the people. Possibly, future generations will call some of our present 'nobodies' great. But, until the States produce other intellectual giants, they must be content with smaller men in Congress." The first two of these suggestions, however, our esteemed contemporary can hardly expect to be taken seriously. That Washington is full at the present time of men who are really Websters, Clays, and Calhouns, and who will a hundred years hence be estimated at their true worth as such, but who are now under a cloud as "nobodies," or that our present general intellectual altitude is so great as to make the production of great men superfluous, are fanciful ideas which will not pass muster in sober discussion. That a State must first produce great men before she can expect to be represented by them in Congress is no doubt true. But the question is, Why are great men no longer produced?

A great deal of what Colonel Higginson says is true not merely of Massachusetts but of the whole country. During the past generation there has been a gradual disappearance from the field of active politics of "great men." In using this term we do not mean geniuses, but merely public men of training and skill, accustomed to bring to the work of government the same methods of investigation, deliberation, and discussion which are commonly used to deal with other human affairs, and who aim at securing support and respect by the weight of their opinions and the familiarity they display with the subjects with which they undertake to deal. When the disappearance of "great men" is talked of, it is really the disappearance of this kind of public man which is meant; and it must be confessed that he is rapidly vanishing from the scene. The Senate is the best place to watch the process going on, for it is the most conspicuous place, and in the Senate how few traces, even, there are left of the class from which such men as Webster, Sumner, Marcy, Wright, Seward, Calhoun, Clay, and Benton were drawn. The Senate is now, as it always has been, the most powerful political body in the country. A seat in it is the goal, just as much now as formerly, of every ambitious politician's career, and, through the patronage which he controls, a senator has now a power never dreamed of in the early days of the Government. Yet in this conspicuous and powerful parliamentary body there is hardly a man whose *opinion* on any question of finance, legislation, administration, domestic or foreign policy, is looked for with interest or considered with respect as likely to have an important bearing upon the decision of the question. If information or argument is needed, nobody

thinks of the Senate as likely to furnish either. There is not a single senator whose "views" advanced in debate have created for him a following among thinking people. Thirty years ago a speech by Webster or Clay on such a subject as the Funding Bill of the interests of American shipping now offered, would have been an important political event, which would have influenced and created opinion throughout the country. We venture to say that when Mr. Blaine comes out for subsidies to encourage commerce, what nine people out of ten feel curious about is what can be "behind it," and on the question of a three or a three-and-a-half per cent. bond the only weighty opinion brought forward is that of Mr. Sherman, who is not in the Senate, and who has, ever since he began to devote himself solely to financial questions, been steadily losing ground as a politician and a manager.

Not only are there no more Websters, Clays, or Calhouns in public life, but, what is worse, there are no signs of any men like them obtaining an entrance into it. The young men who now and then appear on the scene as "reformers," or "gentlemen," or "scholars in politics," though they generally begin their career in their State legislature or Congress with a sincere desire to bring to the work of government an intelligent discussion of questions relating to taxation, jurisprudence, trade and commerce, municipal government, and so forth, soon lose their interest in matters of this kind and display a surprising willingness to become the followers and "henchmen" of some notorious "machine" politician, and devote their energies and attention to playing the game as he plays it. Meanwhile the places of the Websters, Clays, and Calhouns, as leaders, have been taken by an altogether new race of statesmen of whom Conkling, Cameron, and Logan are the best types, who have obtained their present power and influence by the adroit use of patronage. For this purpose it is not at all necessary that they should be men whose *opinions* on any public matter have given them their following. Indeed, it is not generally known what their opinions are, and yet the more profound the silence they maintain on all subjects which come up for discussion, the more their power and influence seem to increase. Many of them, in consequence of this, perhaps, seem studiously to avoid having any opinions at all, and have a way of treating discussion with scorn, as beneath the notice of a real statesman.

The explanation of the disappearance from public life of "great men," and also the contemporaneous rise into power and prominence of the "Bosses," is mainly to be found in the different conditions presented by public life now and fifty years ago. The kind of men that figure prominently in politics, as in any other branch of human activity, depends principally upon the kind of work there is for them to do. The law of demand and supply operates here as in other fields. If to qualify themselves for positions of power and leadership men must store their minds with information, familiarize themselves with the material and social needs of the country, train their intellectual faculties in order that they may be used for the purpose of persuading; if they must study the various questions of finance, administration, and foreign affairs upon which parties divide, so as to be prepared to meet argument with argument, and fact with fact, they will undoubtedly do all this; and it is doing precisely this that produces "great men" in any country. It was by precisely these means that Pitt, Canning, Peel, and Gladstone have been produced in England, and Madison, Jefferson, Hamilton, Webster, Clay, and Calhoun in the United States. If, on the other hand, politics is in such a condition that success in it depends upon a long-continued and elaborate intrigue for place, in which nominations depend on an adroit use of patronage, and the time which would otherwise be spent in the consideration and discussion of public questions is occupied in so disposing of or securing patronage as to make the control of the nominating machinery more certain, it is evident that the politicians whom this system produces cannot be "great men" in the sense in which the term has hitherto been used. This system, however, will develop greatness of its own kind. Some of its products may be small men, like Mr. Dawes; its great men will be great in manipulation, in intrigue, and in the knowledge of the intricate mechanism of the "machine." In their way, there are no greater men in the world than Conkling, Logan, and Cameron. No men in England, or France, or Germany could, in their own line, compete with them for a moment. At "subsoiling" primaries, at organizing conventions, or in a party caucus Bismarck,

Gortchakoff, and Gladstone would be mere children by the side of them. If it be true, as some people believe, that democracy is destined to spread all over the world, and that the type of government to which all countries are coming is the one now represented by the United States, Europeans cannot do better than send over their young men to study the institutions which have given us our present race of "Bosses," for it is unquestionably the Bosses who are the successors of Webster, Clay, and Calhoun. No country in the world could make such a "Boss"-show as the United States. The reason why such a condition of affairs gradually drives "great men" of the other kind out of public life is partly that men with a liking for it, who are at the same time men of education and intellectual tastes, find that to succeed they must leave those behind, and devote themselves to the acquisition of power by the aid of the "machine," or else abandon politics and take up some other calling. "Politics" thus gradually gets among people of this sort a bad name, as being a low sort of pursuit which a man of character and intellectual ambition had better keep out of.

#### PARLIAMENT AND THE IRISH OBSTRUCTIONISTS.

LONDON, Jan. 19, 1881.

THE opening of Parliament on the 6th of this month had been looked forward to with a more than usually eager expectation. It was known that Mr. Gladstone's Government were going to bring forward measures for suspending the ordinary law in Ireland, and also an Irish Land Bill to remove as far as possible the grievances of which the peasantry complain. It was clear that by doing so they would expose themselves to attacks from opposite quarters. The Tory party, and all the upper-class section of the Liberal party, were already indignant that repressive measures had been so long delayed, and would represent a land-reform bill as a mere timorous concession to agitators. On the other hand, the more advanced Liberals might altogether refuse to approve coercive measures, and by withdrawing their support from the Government greatly weaken, if not destroy, it. The spirits of the Tories, lately so downcast, had begun to rise high. No class is so ignorant, because none is so self-satisfied, as an aristocracy. The richer class in England, mixing only with one another, and reading only the two or three London newspapers which reflect their own feelings, go on believing that the opinion of what they call "Society" is the opinion of the nation; and even when their eyes have been opened by a shock like that of the last general election, when the lower and middle class expelled their favorite ministry with ignominy, they persist in shutting their eyes once more and ignoring everything that passes outside their own coteries. Accordingly, they were now persuaded that the anger they felt at the slowness of the Government in coercing Ireland was shared by the whole country, and would hurl Mr. Gladstone from power in a week.

Parliament met, and when, after seven nights' debate, the first division of importance was taken, the Government proved to be stronger than ever. What had been thought their danger turned out to be their safety. The two hostile forces, pressing against them from opposite directions, counterbalanced one another and kept the Ministry in a state of equilibrium. The Tories, when they saw that a section of the Liberal party were opposed to any coercion in Ireland, were obliged to admit that it would have been difficult or impossible for the Government to have passed coercion acts two months earlier, when the Liberal opposition would have been far stronger, because the state of Ireland had not become so serious. And the Liberal left wing, when it found the whole Tory party complaining of the apathy of the Government and in fact accusing it of sympathy with disorder and agitation, could not but feel that the Government had shown itself honestly reluctant to apply extraordinary remedies, and was now acting under a strong sense of necessity. The first great debate, accordingly, a debate in which an unusual number of good speeches were made, instead of being, as had been expected, an arraignment of Mr. Gladstone for having allowed lawlessness to go on unchecked in Ireland, became a controversy between the Government and the Tories on the one hand, and Mr. Parnell with his followers on the other, on the question whether any measures for suspending the ordinary law in Ireland could properly be proposed or ought to be sanctioned. When the division was taken it appeared that nearly the whole of the Liberal party, as well as all the Tories, voted with the Government, only eight Liberals having supported Mr. Parnell, while only twenty-one abstained from voting. That so small a part of the Liberal party protested against a policy which they all professed to dislike, and which it was known that the great constituencies of the North especially disliked, was no doubt chiefly due to the extraordinary ascendancy of Mr. Gladstone. He is at this moment more powerful in England than any minister has been there since the days of William Pitt, and even more powerful in the country than in Parliament; for, while there are a good many jealous and disaffected men, belonging chiefly to the old Whig families,

among his supporters in the House of Commons, nearly all the large constituencies are devoted to him and prepared to believe that whatever he proposes is right.

The time has come when he will need all his power. Two questions of the utmost difficulty have risen in the near future; one already darkens the whole sky. Of the difficulties connected with the Land Bill I shall speak again. The nearer difficulty is caused by the attitude of the Irish Home-Rule party, which has announced its intention of obstructing the passing of any bill suspending the ordinary law in Ireland. Now, the forms of our House of Commons offer such facilities for obstruction that a knot of determined men, prepared to make any number of speeches, put on paper any number of amendments, and move any number of adjournments, can easily protract the discussion of a bill over several months. As this would reduce parliamentary government to a mockery, and defeat the whole object of these particular bills, which are brought forward because the disordered state of Ireland is held to demand prompt and vigorous treatment, it is clear that some means of overcoming obstruction must be found. Everybody in London is now discussing the various plans which have been suggested for the purpose. The newspapers are full of letters on the subject. One man has raked up some musty precedents from the time of James I., when members were checked from irrelevant or needlessly long speeches. Another cites the rules of the French Assembly or your House of Representatives. A third proposes to arm the Speaker with extraordinary powers; a fourth, instead of limiting the right of making speeches, would permit the whole bill to be passed at one or two votes, cutting out the usual stages altogether. Mr. Gladstone has judiciously kept silence as to his own ideas, only throwing out hints that something must be done, which are intended to terrify, if it be possible, the audacious spirits who surround Mr. Parnell. The really strange thing is, not that rules for shortening debate and accelerating business should be imperatively needed now, but that the English House of Commons should have got on for so long without what nearly every other representative assembly possesses. It seems from the enquiries which have been made that Hungary and Sweden are the only countries in which there do not exist some regulations like those of your "previous question" or the French *clôture* for stopping talk and coming to a vote when enough has been said. Yet no emergency less serious than the present would have brought Englishmen to admit the defects of their time-honored system. It is in this kind of thing that the innate conservatism of the nation comes out. These old forms of debate are regarded with an absurd veneration by Radicals just as much as by Tories, because they are believed to have at one time secured freedom of debate against the influence of the court or some tyrannical party. At present the danger is all the other way. Freedom of debate has been pushed to such a length as to discredit Parliament altogether; and there is some danger that we in England may be more and more driven toward a series of temporary dictatorships, each dictator being installed by the popular vote at a general election, and ruling till another election either renews or extinguishes his power. Thus Lord Beaconsfield was made Prime Minister by a plébiscite in 1874; thus Mr. Gladstone was appointed in the same way in 1880, and everything which brings out more clearly the impotence of the House of Commons to deal with the vast and varied affairs which come before it, and even to conduct its own business with promptitude and dignity, will more and more tend to strengthen the executive government at the expense of the representative body. The change may be a good or a bad one, but it will be at any rate a great change, and produce something quite different from that British Constitution we have been accustomed to admire, something more like what your Constitution would be if the United States were undivided instead of being a federal republic. In view of these ultimate issues, the question of Parliamentary procedure is a far graver one than might at first sight appear, and its solution, which seems near at hand, will be watched with no common interest.

Obstruction of another kind has suddenly fallen upon London in a way which, for the moment, diverts every one's mind even from politics. An unusually severe frost, in which the thermometer fell here to more than twenty degrees of Fahrenheit below freezing point, has been followed by a tremendous snow-storm, which has fairly covered up the city, prevented its four millions of people from moving about except by the underground railway, stopped all telegraphic communication, blocked most of the railways so that no letters come in from the country, and threatened us with a famine in such necessities of life as milk, vegetables, and butcher's meat. Such an event reminds one forcibly how easily London would succumb to a siege, for we keep provisions for only a few days ahead, and should be driven to great straits even by the cutting of our railways. As we do not expect on this occasion to suffer for more than a few hours till the lines are cleared, we are mostly rather proud of such a storm, a veritable Siberian hurricane of snow, which we didn't think the English climate could have got up to.

The state of Ireland continues substantially unchanged. Outrages of the graver kind, which have not been common, do not increase, perhaps they rather diminish in number. But the collection of rent has long since ceased,



and now all legal process of every kind, even the recovery of ordinary trade debts, has stopped in most of the country districts. But of the condition of that country, which I have just visited, and which the English papers do not faithfully describe, I hope to say something more at length in a future letter.

## Correspondence.

### POLITICAL SELFISHNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just seen a private letter from Mr. Calhoun to a gentleman of this State in which occurs the following passage:

"The Federal Government is no longer under the control of the people, but of a combination of active politicians who are banded together under the name of Democrats and Whigs, and whose exclusive object is to obtain the control of the honors and emoluments of the Government. With them a regard for principle, or this or that line of policy, is a mere pretext. They are perfectly indifferent to either, and their whole effort is to make up on both sides such issues as they may think, for the time, to be the most popular, regardless of truth or consequences."

Substituting "Republicans" for "Whigs" in the extract just given, might not Mr. Calhoun's account of the parties of his day apply quite as truly to the parties of our own? Or is such an account always true of all parties in all times?—Very faithfully yours,  
A SOUTH CAROLINA DEMOCRAT.

## Notes.

THAT English translation of 'Don Quixote' which the late George Ticknor praised by comparison with Tieck's when he said of the latter that he knew not its equal—"not even Motteux's, edited by Lockhart"—has been made the basis of a new and sumptuous edition published by William Paterson, Edinburgh (New York: J. W. Bouton). It is nobly printed, and adorned with numerous etchings by Ad. Lalauze. Lockhart's life of Cervantes is prefixed to the first volume; his notes, revised, are grouped at the end of the second.—G. P. Putnam's Sons have brought out in two volumes a second edition of Leslie Stephen's 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century,' which was reviewed at length in the *Nation* of August 30, 1877 (No. 635).—J. R. Osgood & Co. will publish during the present year 'Illustrations of the Earth's Structure,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler and Mr. Wm. Morris Davis. It will take the quarto form, and the first part issued will be devoted to Glaciers.—George H. Ellis, Boston, has nearly ready an authorized edition of a course of lectures by Frances Power Cobbe on 'The Duties of Women.'—S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, will shortly publish the first of a series of volumes on 'Great Citizens of France,' being a translation of Alfred Barbou's 'Victor Hugo: His Life and Works.' It will contain a portrait of the poet and a fac-simile of his MS.—'Sister Augustine: an Old Catholic,' is the latest announcement for the Leisure-Hour Series of Henry Holt & Co.—A. S. Barnes & Co. have issued the final instalment of Mrs. M. J. Lamb's 'History of the City of New York,' completing the work in two volumes. The same publishers have in preparation a compilation on 'Recent World's Fairs' in two volumes—viz., Gen. F. A. Walker on the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876, Professor J. M. Hart on that at Vienna in 1874, and Charles Gindriez on that at Paris in 1878.—The Rev. C. G. Howland's address on civil-service reform, read before the Michigan Unitarian Conference at Detroit last October, has been put in pamphlet form for cheap distribution (Chicago: Office of *Unity*, 75 Madison Street). It merits a very wide circulation, and Mr. Howland's example should be emulated by clergymen of every denomination.—No. 12, Part I., of the *Journal of Social Science* contains about one-half the papers read before the Association at Saratoga last year, together with the late Professor Benjamin Peirce's Cincinnati address on "The National Importance of Social Science in the United States." Some of the other topics discussed are "The Relation of the Public Library to the Public Schools," "Educational Progress in England," "Libel and its Legal Remedy," "Care and Saving of Neglected Children," "The Justifying Value of a Public Park," etc.—The National Educational Association (Department of Superintendence) will hold its annual meeting in the hall of the Cooper Union, in this city, on February 8–10. "Our Forests and Our Schools," by Dr. F. B. Hough, and "Unification of School Statistics," by Superintendent McMillan, of Utica, are the two papers which, perhaps, promise to be of the greatest interest.—The annual report of the President of Boston University is remarkable for a sentence six pages long, enumerating the various associations of the University, through its founders and officers, with the historic landmarks of Boston, existing or vanished. For example, the corporators held their first meeting "in Cornhill, in an apart-

ment close before whose windows then stood the old Brattle-Square Meeting-house," etc.—Dartmouth College has just issued its General Catalogue for 1880, with complete lists of officers and graduates and the recipients of honorary degrees from the commencement, the graduates arranged by classes, and the whole indexed under one alphabet.—The new magazine form of Mr. Moses King's *Harvard Register* (vol. iii.) will commend itself generally as an improvement on the old quarto, and doubtless ensures it greater preservation. Mr. C. H. Moore's design for the cover, too, will wear well. The January number is, as usual, replete with information about the University, past and present. Perhaps the most entertaining article is Dr. Bellows's on the Round Hill School (1823–33), of which he was a pupil.—The *Quarterly Review* and the *Edinburgh Review* are to be published in this country through Houghton, Mifflin & Co., from the same plates as the British editions. Subscribers to the *Atlantic* can obtain them at an advantage.—We observe with pleasure the changes for the better in the form and general appearance of the *Planter's Journal*, Vicksburg, now entering on its third volume. The January number urges the abandonment of all other labor systems for the wages plan.—The *Musical Review* has annexed a fine-art department and assumed the double title of the *Studio and Musical Review*.—It is only necessary to mention the appearance of that political stand-by, the 'Tribune Almanac' for 1881, unless we add that its typography does not improve with age.—Four numbers of vol. v. of the *Bulletin* of the Hayden Survey have just come out of the Government Printing-office. Prof. Cope on the "Horizons of Extinct Vertebrata"; W. H. Holmes on the "Fossil Forests of the Volcanic Tertiary Formations of the Yellowstone National Park"; Dr. Coues's warning bibliography of the English-sparrow controversy, further instalments of his admirable American Ornithological Bibliography (No. 2 and the whole of No. 4), and Dr. Morris Gibbs's annotated list of the Birds of Michigan; "Additional Lists of Elevations," from railroad profiles and other sources, by Henry Gannett, are the titles which will prove most attractive to the general reader. A very important bound volume from the same Survey is J. A. Allen's 'History of the North American Pinnipeds,' a monograph of the walruses, sea-lions, sea-bears and seals, freely illustrated.—The Society of Decorative Art, 34 E. 19th St., New York, offer prizes ranging from \$500 to \$25 for designs for portières, screens, friezes, table-covers, needlework, outline work on silk and on linen, drawn work, a figure-design for a panel, etc. The designs must be sent in from the 25th to the 27th of April. Further particulars can be learned on application as above, by addressing the "Prize Design Competition."—Parts 21 and 22 of Stieler's Hand-Atlas (Westermann) contain maps of the world's trade routes, of Germany, Hungary, South-eastern United States, China, and the first sheet of the entirely new map of South America, one of the chief features of the present edition. A supplementary number gives two more sheets of the Mediterranean large-scale map, showing incidentally the Russian gains and Turkish losses of territory in the late war.—With the approval of the editor, Dr. Julius Rodenberg, an index to the *Deutsche Rundschau* (vols. i.–xxvi.) has been undertaken by the maker of the recent indexes of the *Nation*, *Atlantic*, *Lippincott's*, *International Review*, etc. Subscriptions to the *Rundschau* at \$6 per annum may be secured of the same active worker, by addressing Q. P. Index, Bangor, Me.

—When the first part of Mr. Noyes's catalogue of the Brooklyn Library appeared we spoke of it as a work of which American librarians might be proud; in the last part, just issued, we find no falling off—indeed it is, if anything, rather better. The number of books which he can lay under contribution in illustrating each subject is of course larger than three years ago, and his skill in dealing with them, if we are not mistaken, has grown greater. Setting aside the question whether the general plan (the "encyclopaedic") is the best possible, about which we have our doubts, we may at least say that this plan has been so well carried out that no other could have produced much better results. "Philosophy" is a good example of Mr. Noyes's thorough treatment, and might be chosen to exhibit the merits of his general theory, for the subdivisions of philosophy are so closely connected one with another, and the border lines are so difficult to determine, that a method which brings them all together within fifteen pages shows to great advantage beside one which, like the "dictionary" plan, disperses them throughout the whole alphabet. Under the next heading of note, "Poetry," there is a list of the names of over 800 authors whose poems in English are in the library. The labor of compiling such a list can be imagined, and after all it occupies but two pages. The names merely are given; for the title of the poems and for biographical and critical remarks the reader must turn to the author's proper place in the general alphabet. But this is easy in a volume of only 1110 pages. Immediately after "Poetry" comes "Political Economy" (fourteen pages), which seems to be unusually well done. In many cases even the titles of chapters in books are given, so as to show what the work treats of, and a note is added to explain how it treats it—the main theory of the author. As a book of reference it would be well if this catalogue were in every town library. If the librarian has the true spirit of his office he will find it not

merely useful in assisting those readers in researches who already have a taste for research, but also a most valuable aid in the efforts which he will make to lead those to read for information who are now reading solely for amusement.

—We have received another letter from Professor Haynes, insisting on the priority of his settling the question of the Stone Age in Egypt; correcting our error in attributing to Dr. Mook a work put forth by his teacher, Dr. Fischer; and expressing his inability to "comprehend how any 'laboratory tests' can establish 'the genuineness of the finds' of prehistoric stone implements." We might, if we had the space, indicate how long this genuineness has been a matter of dispute among the most eminent anthropologists and physicists, but we content ourselves with citing in regard to the last point the words of Virchow: "Für die einfacheren, roheren Sprengstücke giebt es keine absoluten Merkmale, ob sie künstlich oder natürlich entstanden sind." It was this difficulty of determining whether the chips were of a truly artificial or of a natural character that brought about the technical issue in the controversy. Even such distinguished geologists as Desor and Fraas originally upheld their non-artificial (or natural) origin, but the last (in the continuation of his work 'Aus dem Orient'), after carefully-repeated studies, announces his conviction that at least a portion of the so-called prehistoric remains may be considered genuine. On subjecting the specimens to a laboratory test Dr. Mook found that in all the truly artificial ones a peculiar structure of wave-lines and other distinguishing characters had been induced as the result of the original blow or blows, and that the presence of this peculiar structure *invariably* and *readily* served to separate the two classes of products in question. This is probably a crucial test, and is that which solves the question in general.

—The *American Law Review*, which has for a long time stood at the head of the periodical legal press of the country, was a year ago changed from a quarterly to a monthly. During the past year it has been carried on by the publishers, Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., but hereafter it is to be edited by Mr. Charles E. Grinnell, of the Boston bar, who has, we believe, done a great deal of editorial work upon it already. Each number now contains two leading articles, a number of book notices, and a "Review of the Month," a particularly valuable department of which is "Notes of Exchanges." This furnishes to the practising lawyer what he is always most in need of, a key to the recent discussion of leading topics of the law. The old "digests" have been given up, partly, we presume, on account of the shorter intervals between the numbers of the *Review*. Each number also has an index, which is, of course, a great convenience. The December and January numbers contain a learned and valuable discussion, by Prof. James B. Thayer, of a question in the law of evidence which not long since gave rise to an entertaining controversy between Mr. J. Pitt Taylor, the author of the leading English treatise on evidence, and the late Lord Chief-Justice Cockburn.

—The *Christian Intelligencer* has been made very angry by our observations a fortnight ago on its request for prayer for itself and other weeklies, and indulges in some unseemly threats and vituperation. It calls us "a self-constituted Boss of the Moral Universe," and alleges or insinuates that we "would not dare to give the lie in person" to somebody not named. This looks unpleasantly like an intimation that we should shrink from a personal encounter with the editor of a religious paper, which is quite true. We are opposed to single combat in any form as a means of settling newspaper quarrels, and would under no circumstances engage in one. The *Intelligencer* treats our remarks as a charge of making a "covert appeal for subscriptions" in its request for prayer for the weeklies, and especially for the *Intelligencer*, at the beginning of the year, and says this is a direct accusation of "the basest hypocrisy and falsehood." We had not supposed that any religious paper would be ashamed of asking for prayer that its circulation might be increased, any more than a minister would be ashamed of asking for prayer that his congregation might grow. Some religious papers certainly, the *Christian Advocate* for one, have treated the pushing of their circulation as a religious work, and therefore, under the well-known rule—*laborare est orare*—the equivalent of prayer. We have always considered this view a very unsafe one, however, inasmuch as such papers are not merely spiritual agencies, like a church, but commercial enterprises, and should therefore be very careful to avoid even the appearance of appealing to religious motives as a means of increasing their pecuniary receipts. If we have wrongfully placed the *Intelligencer* in this category we are very sorry for it, and withdraw the observations complained of; but we would respectfully suggest as a means of avoiding all future misunderstanding that the religious appeals and exhortations addressed to subscribers at the beginning of the year should not appear on the same page or column, or, better still, in the same number, as the appeals to them to "renew" and to get their friends to subscribe.

—The *Intelligencer* demands from us "the common courtesies of civilization," in default of "Christian charity." But we find in the number before us, in the "Editor's Table-Talk," the following about Colonel Robert Ingersoll:

"We would not touch with an obtrusive finger the sacred grief even of one who has delighted to make mirth and scorn of our holiest and tenderest beliefs and experiences; and it is in respectful sympathy that we note the fact that Col. Robert Ingersoll broke down in his recent endeavor to make the funeral address at his sister's grave. His most pitiable exhibition of infidelity was at his brother's funeral, when he consigned spirit and body alike to the elements of nature. It is a hopeful sign that he could not repeat the ghastly scene. Nature itself, and consciousness, and conscience, and early memories and teachings, are not dead yet in this defiant and fanatic infidel's heart. Let us not give up praying for him. They say he has aged ten years in appearance since his sister's death."

As an example of refraining from "touching sacred grief" with an "obtrusive finger," and as an expression of "respectful sympathy" with a mourner who has "aged ten years in appearance" since his bereavement, and as an illustration of the too common device of expressing contempt and dislike by a proposal to pray for a man, it would not be easy to match the foregoing in recent literature. For the writer of such a passage to make a demand on anybody, either for the "common courtesies of civilization" or for "Christian charity," shows great boldness. He may be entitled to both, but surely he is not the person to present his claim.

—Mr. S. S. Rider, of Providence, has recently published a little volume, 'Notes concerning the Wampanoag Indians,' by W. J. Miller, which contains something of interest to the increasing number whose attention is turned to the early Norse voyages to this country. It was known half a century ago that an inscription existed somewhere on the shores of Mount Hope Bay wholly distinct in character from the well-known figure-drawing upon Dighton Rock, but a careful search failed to discover it. This inscription has recently been found, and an account of it, with an engraving, is given in Mr. Miller's essay. Another view of it is given in Munro's newly published 'History of Bristol' (Providence: J. A. & R. A. Reid). There seems no reason to doubt its great antiquity, and it is impossible not to regard it as having an important bearing on the much-disputed question whether the Northmen ever visited Narragansett Bay. It is said that there are, or were, similar inscriptions at Fogland Point, a short distance below the railroad bridge on the route between Fall River and Newport. The subject certainly deserves the careful investigation of archaeologists.

—Some time ago Mr. Gaston L. Feuardent, an expert antiquarian and dealer in antiquities in this city, where he represents the well-known house of Feuardent & Co., made over his own signature in an art journal several serious charges against General Di Cesnola's treatment of his Cypriote collection, now at the Metropolitan Museum of Art. General Di Cesnola, he affirmed, had taken liberties in "restoring" various objects of the Cypriote find in such a manner as to vitiate their trustworthiness as antiquities, however they might have been improved in an artistic respect, as to which last, moreover, he incidentally expressed great doubt. A committee of investigation was appointed by the Museum, consisting of President Barnard of Columbia College, Chief-Justice Daly, Rev. Roswell D. Hitchcock, Mr. Wm. C. Prime, and Mr. J. Q. A. Ward, the two latter being trustees of the Museum. At first Mr. Feuardent refused to appear before this committee, alleging that unless he were allowed to name one of their number he should not feel sure of fair treatment. The committee decided that, not being self-appointed, they had no power to add to their number, and proceeded with their investigation. Finally, Mr. Feuardent determined to waive his objection and make his charges in person. He did so, and the other witnesses in the case having been examined, the committee rendered their report last week entirely exonerating General Di Cesnola. The charges were eight in number, the most important, perhaps, which may be taken as an example of the rest, being that a mirror had been cut upon the drapery of a figure of Elpis, transforming it into an Aphrodite in order to show that the worship of Venus continued at Golgoi, where the statuette was found, in Greek times. According to the "unanimous testimony of experts, sculptors, and practical stoneworkers," the committee found this totally unfounded and the motive assigned ridiculous, since there is abundance of proof of the worship of Aphrodite at Golgoi in Greek times. How Mr. Feuardent should have made so grave an error is not explained in the report, but the public, of course, is less concerned about this than about the trustworthiness of the Cesnola collection, which must be considered as still unimpeached.

—The third of Mr. Henschel's vocal recitals was, so far, decidedly the best of the series. He was in fine voice, and the programme admirably arranged. The first three songs belonged to the old school, and of these the sacred song by J. W. Franck, "Sei nur still," was the most interesting. Franck was a physician by profession, and lived in Hamburg about the middle of the seventeenth century. He left a large number of operas, chiefly with texts from sacred and classical stories, such as "David," "The Macca-bees," "Hannibal," and others. But he is most famous for his sacred songs, which were published under the title "Kirchliche Andachten," and are sung to this day in the Lutheran churches of Germany. The remaining selections by



Mr. Henschel were made from modern composers, among which "Ganymede," by Schubert, and "Meine Königin," by Brahms, deserve mention. Miss Bailey sang several songs very acceptably, and also bore her part well in several duets with Mr. Henschel, one of which, "Oh! that we two were Maying!" written by Mr. Henschel, is a delightful little idyl. Mr. Sherwood, the pianist of the concert, has during this season disappointed many of his warmest admirers. On every occasion when he has been heard he has played carelessly and inartistically. His performance of Chopin's great Polonaise in A flat and of Liszt's Polonaise in E was full of technical mistakes and devoid of taste. Mr. Sherwood has not only made no progress since his first appearance in New York, but has positively lost ground.

—The annual report of the President of Harvard College, with the accompanying documents, makes an octavo volume of 219 pages, of which the Treasurer's statement occupies a quarter part. President Eliot, as is his custom, puts at the front his newest thought on the condition of the higher education in this country. He reckons up 360 so-called colleges or universities, male or mixed, of which nearly 200 have been organized since 1850, all but 28 since 1820, and only 20 antedate the century. This increase has been principally at the West, and it has been marked there by a tendency towards gratuitous instruction, so that more than a third of the whole number of colleges either charge no tuition-fee or only a nominal one, not exceeding \$30 per annum. The same thing is true of the recently founded agricultural colleges. On the other hand, the older colleges continue to exact a fee, and it becomes an interesting question how much they suffer in competition with the cheaper (but not always inferior) institutions. In other words, in the case of Harvard, "Is the College proper, or the University as a whole, more of a New England institution or less than it was in 1850 and 1820?" President Eliot answers this enquiry with tables showing that the percentage both of Massachusetts and New England attendance at Cambridge has declined; that while the Southern has greatly fallen off, the Middle States and Western have correspondingly increased; and that the considerable advance in tuition-fees has not prevented a large and healthy growth in a "university of national resort." Some departments offer an exception to the rule. "The Medical School is, as it has always been, essentially a New England school." The Law School is much more so than at the close of the war, partly owing to the multiplication of law schools since 1850, to the enhanced fees, the lengthening of the term, and the greater rigor of the examinations. President Eliot is opposed to sectional exclusiveness in university instruction, and desires "that universities may grow up in the Western and Southern States, as well as in the Eastern, strong enough to attract students from all parts of the country, and that the German practice of migrating from one university to another may take root here." The most important step taken by the University in many years is the provision of pensions for retiring professors. The Corporation have elaborated a scheme which experience may modify, but which meets the approbation of nearly all the professorial body, and the Retiring Allowance Fund now exceeds \$20,000 (the contribution of a single graduate). Once in operation it will ensure more cheerful work with freedom from care, and will permit voluntary withdrawal, either in whole or in part, for the prosecution of original study and research. Already it may be said to furnish a criterion second to no other in the estimate of the relative rank of colleges. No notice is taken in the report of the "Annex," but it is pointed out that the University examinations for women have been assimilated to those for men. Prof. Dunbar, in an appendix, gives the results of seven years' trial under the old method, which seemed to prove either that no general want existed to be supplied, or that the examinations had raised the standards of admission and preparation in female colleges, and so created a competition against themselves. Upon the success of the new experiment, we judge, will depend their continuance.

—We cannot enter into the details of the improvements in the methods of instruction at Harvard, such as the development of "conferences" out of lectures and recitations combined. The struggling departments are still the Lawrence Scientific School, which threatens to be chiefly supported by "special students" having their main interest and instruction elsewhere; the Dental School, easily the first in the country, but absolutely neglected by the benefactors of the University; the Law School, which (and this is even more strange) has not had a dollar given it since 1869-70, save \$500 from the late Judge Curtis for the purchase of books, and is sadly in need of better and safer accommodations; and the Bussey Institution, whose prospects are brightening. The Botanic Garden fund appears to be making less headway than it deserves. The income of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy is "entirely insufficient to carry on the work at a rate satisfactory to the Curator," Mr. Alexander Agassiz, who therefore "himself provides whatever further sums his undertakings require." The Medical School has extended its requirements for admission, and is enjoying the reward of its efforts to raise the standard of cultivation among its graduates. "It is notorious," says President Eliot, "that medical students have been, as a rule, a rougher class of young men than other professional students of similar age. In this

University, until the reformation of the School in 1870-71, the medical students were noticeably inferior in bearing, manners, and discipline to the students of other departments; they are now indistinguishable from other students." The Divinity School has been strengthened by the accession of Professor Toy, and has added \$140,000 to its endowment.

"The Faculty propose to adhere to the policy of declining to promise pecuniary aid in advance, and of withholding such aid from all but successful students. Their correspondence on this subject shows that the practices of most of the theological seminaries in regard to pecuniary aid are very faulty. The seminaries bid against each other for young mendicants who think that the community owes them a theological education. A surer way to degrade the Protestant ministry, and destroy its influence, could hardly have been devised."

—Dr. Charles Waldstein, of New York, has resumed his lectures on Greek Art, particularly sculpture, at the Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge, England. We have before us reprints of three papers contributed by him during the past year to the transactions of the Royal Society of Literature, vol. xii., Part 2, the *Archäologische Zeitung*, vol. xxxviii., and the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*. The first of these possesses the most general interest, as dealing with the subject, "Praxiteles and the Hermes with the Dionysus-child from the Heraion in Olympia." It is a defence of the attribution of this masterpiece of statuary to the Praxiteles. The second paper, in German and very brief, discusses a fine marble torso of a woman's draped figure in Venice, and reaches the conclusion that it belonged to the group on the western pediment of the Parthenon, in the gap between two male figures in the southeast corner; and was, presumably, a nymph whose attention was being drawn by the river-god Kephisos to the central conflict between Athene and Poseidon. Dr. Waldstein considers it a specimen of Attic art not later than the period immediately succeeding Phidias. His third paper, on "Pythagoras of Rhegion and the Early Athlete Statues," is the most important of all in its bearings, for by seeking to establish the fact that, in the time before short-haired professional athletes had driven out the amateurs, the latter were accustomed to retain their long hair, variously bound up out of the way, he challenges a large number of so-called Apollos, and leaves them simple men of muscle. The basis of this discussion is furnished by the so-called Choiseul-Gouffier Apollo in the British Museum, a noble work, which has been thought a replica of an almost identical statue in the Patissia Museum at Athens, known as the Apollo on the Omphalos. Dr. Waldstein reduces this Apollo to the ranks by demonstrating that it could not have stood on the omphalos associated with it. He ends by suggesting a probable restoration for his British Museum athlete, and by putting forward the theory that it is a copy of the statue of the pugilist Euthymos, so much admired by Pausanias, and one of the recorded productions of Pythagoras of Rhegion. In all these papers Dr. Waldstein's reasoning strikes one as sane and scientific as well as learned. We can only quote from the last his practical rule for interpreting work of the archaic period previous to Myron: "If a statue has no long hair or ornamental attributes, such as curls, it is in all probability not an Apollo; and if the hair is arranged in two braids on the back of the head, wound round and fastened on the top, the statue is in all probability that of an athlete."

—The capital illustration in *Le Livre* for January is an etching after a recently discovered portrait of Daniel Elzevir (1626-1680), for two years (1652-54) partner of his cousin John at Leyden, afterward publisher on his own account at Amsterdam. No other portrait of him is known to exist. The original of this one, which was found in Italy, was painted on a wooden panel in oils, *en grisaille*—that is, in imitation of bas-relief. The etcher, however, has chosen to reproduce it as if in color—with what loss or gain for the likeness we cannot say—and to frame it in a decorative *cartouche*, with appropriate symbols. The editor expressly recommends this print as a frontispiece to Willems's 'Les Elzevier,' to which we made brief allusion last week. *Le Livre* announces an important and gigantic undertaking on the part of the prefectural administration of Paris—nothing less than the printing of its archives, which embrace the history of the municipality from the time of Louis XII. to the present day. They have hitherto been explored only in part, and by scholars. When printed they will fill at least one hundred and ten volumes of three hundred pages each. Their value for the history of municipal regulation will be very considerable. Among the books reviewed in the magazine before us we notice 'Le Feu à Paris et en Amérique,' by Colonel Paris, commanding the regiment of "sapeurs-pompiers" in the French capital. The author compares the fire-services of Paris and New York, concluding in favor of the former, so far as relates to the early suppression of fires and the saving of life, but decidedly in favor of the latter when it is a question of extinguishing a powerful conflagration which has passed beyond the first stages. Notice is taken, in the necrology, of the death of Mlle. Adélaïde de Montgolfier, daughter of the aeronaut, at the advanced age of ninety-three years. She had a distinction of her own, being "a woman of fine intelligence, whose whole life was devoted to literature." An excellent

musician, she published a volume ('Spring Melodies') of songs, full of freshness, which are sung in almost all the schools of France.

—Mr. Alfred Meissner, an old and trusted friend, as well as biographer, of Heine, sharply criticises in a German journal the recently-published volume on the poet by his Italian niece. Several of his relatives having, either by not over-reputable means acquired what they are pleased to deem greatness, or had it thrust upon them by marriage, are anxious to screen their plebeian origin behind an apocryphal family history. Fears of disclosures which would compromise their present dignity are the probable cause, according to Mr. Meissner, of their unwillingness to allow Heine's memoirs to see the light. The existence of these is proved not only by Mr. Meissner's testimony that he has seen them, but by the recent confession of Baron Heine, of Vienna, that he has them in his possession. As to the niece's new anecdotes, some of the incidents occurred, but not to Heine; others, such as the Bavarian princess's cup of coffee, are inherently too improbable to be believed. No such incident could have happened at the Bavarian court at the time mentioned; nor, if it could, was Heine the man to rebuff such an overture.

#### FYFFE'S MODERN EUROPE (1792-1814).\*

MR. FYFFE has produced as brilliant a sketch as we have seen for many a day; nor is it any discredit to his work that it should be a sketch rather than in a proper sense a history, for his avowed and legitimate aim is to give a general and striking view of an era which, though not far distant in years, is perhaps as little understood as times separated from the present day by the lapse of centuries. That he has omitted to notice many things in themselves important, is inevitable from the very nature of his scheme. An outline may be accurate but it cannot be a complete picture; that he has fallen into errors which could be detected by persons possessing special knowledge of the years with which he deals, is at least possible; that all his conclusions should command the assent of any one of his readers, is impossible. There would, therefore, be little difficulty in filling an article and more with a controversial review of his book in reference to minute matters both of fact and of opinion. We prefer, however, to take a different course, and, treating the 'History of Modern Europe' as what it certainly is, a most brilliant and suggestive sketch, to call the attention of our readers to one or two of the points which Mr. Fyffe's essay suggests.

The one permanent impression which any general view of the Napoleonic era leaves on the mind of any thoughtful critic is that both Napoleon and his age are to a considerable extent misunderstood, mainly because students look at detached features of the revolutionary movement instead of regarding it as a whole. Once let the events of the twenty-two years with which Mr. Fyffe deals be brought into one point of view, and even persons who have no special knowledge to help them may see, if nothing else, at least what is the nature of the mis-conceptions or prejudices which render it difficult for Englishmen and Americans alike to appreciate either the real weakness or the equally real merits of the epoch in which Napoleon will always remain the leading figure. Of these mis-conceptions two are well worth notice.

The first is the prevalent misconception of the relation between Napoleon and the period which immediately preceded his rise. To superficial observation the man who tamed the mob of Paris and overthrew the Republic naturally appears to be above all things the opponent of the Revolution. It is easy enough to draw out a series of antitheses between Napoleon and the democratic leaders whom he succeeded. He restored order—they had produced anarchy; he hated liberty—they were the fanatics of freedom; he built up a despotism—they strove to found a Commonwealth; he restored the power of the Church—the revolutionists held that priests were only less hateful than tyrants; the aim of French democracy was to produce equality—Napoleon strove to surround an imperial throne with an imperial nobility. But though an ingenious writer might readily enumerate scores of contrasts between the imperial system and the preceding revolutionary governments, we are well convinced, and we suspect that any careful reader of Mr. Fyffe's pages will share our conviction, that to look upon Napoleon as essentially the opponent of the revolutionary movement is a mistake which arises from misconception, and in its turn begets misconceptions. That Napoleon personally cared for little else than the increase and maintenance of his own personal power, is undoubted; that he felt nothing but dislike or contempt for republican dreams or aspirations, is certain; that he attempted at the later stages of his career to ally himself with royal houses, is a patent fact. But for all this it remains true that Napoleon in his conceptions of statesmanship, and to a great extent in his policy, was from the constitution of his mind and the necessities of his position the representative of the Revolution. He was a Jacobin on the throne, and as selfish and as unprincipled a Jacobin as any man who sat on the Committee of Public Safety; but he was what none of the Terrorists could claim to be—a Jacobin of genius.

Once catch this aspect of his character, and one observes with amazement how curiously the god of modern Imperialism reproduced in substance the traits of the Revolutionary party to which he originally belonged. He, like Robespierre and his followers, had no conception of what was meant by liberty. He, like the men of the Reign of Terror, had an exaggerated idea of the results to be accomplished by the use of force, though Napoleon understood what the Revolutionary fanatics never could even perceive, that force itself to be effective must be used with sagacity. Napoleon again, like Danton and Robespierre, believed and acted on the belief that the maintenance of his own power was the same thing as maintaining the welfare of the state. If any one urge that the Revolutionists wished to spread liberty far and wide, whilst Bonaparte hardly for one instant deviated from his systematic opposition to every form of liberty, the apparent difference would be found to be one rather of name than of substance. If we except the Girondists, who with all their failings were redeemed by a sincere if ignorant enthusiasm for freedom, we shall scarcely find that any of the Revolutionary leaders were real zealots for individual liberty, as that word is understood in any Anglo-Saxon land. They were, however, sincere foes of all inequality. But this sentiment of hostility to privilege was as strong in Napoleon, at least where his own immediate interests were not concerned, as in any member of the Jacobin Club. His dealings with Venice, with Switzerland, with Germany, and with Spain, his laws, and the whole general course of his policy, betray distinctly that dislike of aristocratic privilege which has distinguished every Frenchman who for a century or more has really influenced French opinion. Nor is the contrast between the religious policy of Napoleon and the religious policy of Robespierre at bottom so marked as its points of likeness. If Napoleon made the Concordat, Robespierre certainly planned an official worship of the *Être suprême*; both the Emperor and the democrat looked upon the maintenance of a state religion as a department of moral police. Each of them disliked any approach to that individual independence in matters of religion which lies at the bottom of Protestantism; each of them showed, in common with most statesmen of the time, a shallow conception of the influence and nature of religious feeling, and each exhibited an incapacity for dealing otherwise than superficially with all the numerous matters in which religion and politics become mixed together.

But if Napoleon had at bottom the faults, he had also many of the virtues, of Jacobinism. English critics fail to see this because they will not allow that Jacobinism, like every other belief which has strongly influenced mankind, possessed a good no less than a bad side. The strength of the Jacobins lay in the perception of the fact that a strong government was needed to carry out a great revolution, and that the real end of the Revolutionary movement was the destruction of all the forms of class privilege which were the baneful result of feudalism. No one will dispute that Napoleon shared the passion for strong government. Few candid observers will deny that the Empire, with all its defects, dealt a deadly blow to all forms of political inequality. To say that Napoleon was selfish, which is true past a doubt, is not necessarily to prove that his rule was wholly pernicious. Mr. Fyffe brings out better than any English writer with whom we are acquainted the extent of the benefits which the Napoleonic Empire conferred on Italy, on Switzerland, on Belgium, and on considerable parts of Germany. Till by reckless insolence, and a disregard of ordinary human feeling which detracts a good deal from Bonaparte's claim to transcendent genius, the Emperor roused against him the national sentiment of races which, like the Germans, had all but forgotten what patriotism meant, his rule was popular over a great part of the Continent. One may doubt whether Italy was ever so well governed as under the Empire till she was united under Victor Emmanuel.

At this point we come across that second misconception with regard to the Napoleonic era which perverts the judgment of modern Liberals. The obvious fact that Napoleon was a selfish despot, and that in the contest between him and the Spanish or the German people the sympathy of just men is rightly enlisted as against Napoleon on the side of the patriots, naturally suggests the inference that the cause represented by the Emperor was wholly bad, whilst that represented by nations armed in self-defence was wholly good. But this idea, though natural, is false. Any one who weighs the merits of the Revolutionary against the merits of the National movement, will find it by no means an easy task to determine on which side his sympathies ought to lie. The Revolutionary ideal inherited from the thinkers of the eighteenth century was no doubt in many points defective, but it was in itself a high, a noble, and, above all, a rational ideal. The notion that all men have certain rights, that the object of good government is to secure these rights, and that statesmen and philosophers who desire the good of mankind should regard mainly the points in which men resemble each other, and think comparatively little of the minor points of race, of rank, of nationality, and the like, in which man differs from man, is certainly inadequate, but as certainly it is a notion which has fostered the growth of justice, of humanity, and of philanthropy. This notion, no doubt, led men far nobler than Napoleon to overlook the importance of national sentiment, and probably palliated to his own conscience his outrageous assaults on national in-

\* 'History of Modern Europe. By A. C. Fyffe, M.A.' Vol. i. London and New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1880.



dependence. What, however, is to be noted is that the patriots who opposed Napoleon were roused to activity fully as much by hatred of what was good as by detestation of what was bad in his rule. The Spanish peasants and the priests who led them hated toleration, good administration, destruction of privilege—in other words, rational progress—quite as much as they detested the tyranny by which Napoleon forced upon them a system of government far more in harmony with modern notions of improvement than was any government which Spaniards had ever secured for Spain. Moreover, it is not quite an accident that the cause of nationality should be connected with the cause of conservatism or of privilege. The notion that men who speak English or German have a special claim to freedom or good government which is not possessed by men who speak, say, French or Russian, is not in itself a noble or rational idea. The fancy that it is in itself and in the nature of things desirable that all the persons who speak one language should be under one and the same government has, from accidental circumstances, passed itself off on this generation as a sound and exalted principle; but it is far from being an undoubted truth. It is certainly an evil that any large body of men should be compelled to belong to a state of which they do not wish to form part; but that different races should be willingly combined under one sovereign is or may be a great benefit to each. The union of Alsace with France gave to France herself a population endowed with qualities in which pure Frenchmen are deficient, and Alsatians received from France laws and institutions which compared very favorably with Germanic systems of government. If, therefore, we are to judge the Napoleonic era rightly, we must at once dismiss the idea that the cause accidentally represented by Napoleon was inherently much worse than the cause represented by the King of Prussia or by the Czar. The momentous years 1792 to 1814 exhibit the development of a system of government and of ideas which, like every other system, deserves neither indiscriminate praise nor unrestricted blame. We may expect in Mr. Fyffe's next volume an account as brilliant of the age of reaction as the picture which he has drawn of the age of revolution.

#### AMERICAN INFLUENCE IN EGYPT.\*

BETWEEN 1869 and 1875 no less than forty-eight American officers took service under the Khedive, and although their careers have always been followed with considerable interest by a large number of their countrymen, yet Colonel Dye is the first to give to the world any systematic account of their doings. Colonel Dye is a graduate of West Point, and had had the benefit of more than seventeen years of active service in the United States Army, including the four years of the rebellion, before he went to Egypt; and he was nearly five years in the army of the Khedive, so that he has ample experience on which to base his opinions. He apologizes, however, in the preface, for "the many literary faults of an unpractised hand," and it is to be regretted that there is need for some apology, for his language is often obscure. For instance, speaking in general terms of the mission of the American officers, he says: "This call upon the youngest, freest, and most progressive of great nations, to help lift, as was generally supposed, the most enslaved of peoples out of ruts worn with the depths of ages, was in reality, these pages will disclose, an attempt to rejuvenate hoary age by the process of engrafting." After a careful perusal of the book it is by no means clear why the one metaphor is more applicable than the other. In fact, the only idea which can be gained from these pages as to the reason for the employment of the Americans is that the Khedive, having determined to pose before the world as a "progressive reformer," thought that a staff would be an attractive ornament to his army, just as a legislature would be to his political system. He therefore procured one forthwith, by the inducements of high rank and contracts securing to the officers their pay for five years. But there his efforts came to an end, and the staff took no more root in his country than did the parliament. The pashas looked upon the staff as a foreign invention, intended as a rival to their authority instead of being a valuable adjunct to it; they refused to place the slightest confidence in it, and they used the few members of it who were sent on military expeditions only to entrap them into giving advice of such a nature that, if the expedition failed, the blame of it could be shifted on to the staff. It was a tame sort of a farce, a kind of opéra bouffe without the sparkle; and the Khedive seems to have paid but little attention to the matter so long as the real opera went on in Cairo with unprecedented spirit and splendor—and the foreign bondholders paid for the music. Finally, the day of reckoning came with the English and French Commission of 1878, and then the "staff" disappeared along with all the luxuries of the Khedive.

Colonel Dye's book is full of valuable material, but it is not very well digested, and it needs reduction in bulk. The "ethnic processes" of Abyssinia have very little pertinence to his story, and the petty details of the Egyptian march from the Red Sea coast to Gura—a distance of eighty miles—and the

comments and criticisms on them, are very prolix. But he tells us of two Abyssinian campaigns of the Egyptians of which trustworthy accounts have not, we believe, previously been published in English. The first of these was made in the autumn of 1875 by a force of about 2,500 men under Colonel Arrendrup, whose object was vaguely stated to be "to restore tranquillity on the frontier." It resulted in the death of its commander and the destruction—almost annihilation—of the force under his command by a vastly more numerous army of Abyssinians under King John. The second campaign was undertaken in the spring of 1876 in order to regain the prestige lost by the first. The Egyptian army, numbering about 12,000 men, was commanded by Ratib Pasha, with General Loring as chief of staff, and Colonel Dye as his assistant. Prince Hassan, then about twenty-two years old, accompanied the army as a spectator, and plans for his comfort and safety occupied the greater part of Ratib's attention. The short march to Gura being finally accomplished at the end of several weeks after the troops had landed at Massowah, the Egyptians were attacked by King John's army of Abyssinians, whose numbers were variously estimated by different participants in the battle at from 50,000 to 400,000 warriors! Colonel Dye's account of this battle (in which he was wounded) is the best part of the book. It is written in plain and simple language, and is in the highest degree spirited and interesting. The Egyptians had so divided their forces that they had only about 5,000 men to meet the attack. Of these about 4,500 were killed or wounded in the battle, and the rest took refuge in a little fort which they had previously constructed, and there managed to defend themselves for three days, when King John's army was obliged to disband for subsistence. The remnant of the Egyptians hastily retreated to the coast, and began negotiations for peace. These, however, were never concluded, and the army returned gradually to Egypt. In commenting upon this campaign, which apparently had not a single redeeming feature, Colonel Dye gives it as his opinion that "the Egyptian as a soldier is only a child"; and the opinion is amply warranted by the facts of the campaign. It was nothing less than child's play—children playing with powder and destroyed by its explosion; an expedition undertaken to "gain prestige," conducted with less appreciation of the simplest military principles than is shown by many savage tribes, and concluded in overwhelming disaster and disgrace, which even Oriental lying could not conceal. The military system of "that enlightened ruler," the Khedive Ismail, was as complete a sham as was his system of finances and his "constitutional" government.

The position of the American officers was from the beginning a false one; some of them were no doubt mere adventurers and soldiers of fortune, but the majority were educated officers of long and honorable service at home, and of varied experience in war on one side or the other in the rebellion. Yet they never received the command of troops, but were all incorporated with the "staff," without well defined or specific duties except for a few who were sent off on exploring expeditions. They were never received into the confidence of the Egyptians, but were always at the mercy of an anti-foreign court intrigue, and were thwarted and annoyed at every step. One can but sympathize with the chief of staff in the Gura campaign, who, after his orders had been countermanded by clerks, his authority overruled, and his advice disregarded so that inevitable disaster was staring him in the face, exclaimed, in blunt phrase, that he believed he would "turn everything over to the Arabs and let them run the damned old thing themselves." After the disaster Ratib Pasha and the other Egyptians were received with the greatest favor, decorated and promoted, while the blame of the failure was thrown upon the Americans and every indignity heaped upon them. They were prohibited for a long time from returning to Cairo, and when they did return they were socially ignored, and left without employment or pay for nearly two years, until the Commission of 1878 came to their relief and discharged them.

This Egyptian "incident" is the first instance in which Americans, in any numbers, have entered a foreign service for the purpose of "lifting it from ruts" or "rejuvenating" it, and the experience should be carefully considered by any officers who may be tempted in the future with offers of colonelcies and generalcies in any state which has relapsed into semi-barbarism. After nearly five years of it Colonel Dye records his opinion as follows: "If in these remarks enough has not been said to indicate that no intelligent foreigner should ever serve under an Egyptian, I wish here to state definitely to those having an interest in the progress of the country, that an intelligent foreigner can accomplish little in Egypt unless he has unlimited power entrusted to him." And we may add that, in Egypt or in any other state incapable of correcting its own vices, the chances of unlimited power being entrusted to any foreigner are very small.

#### THE LITERATURE OF 1880.\*

A COMPLETE review of the literary history of the present day is becoming more difficult with each succeeding year. The difficulty does not arise simply from the fact of the great increase in the number of works

\* Moslem Egypt and Christian Abyssinia; or, Military Service under the Khedive, in his provinces and beyond their borders, as experienced by the American Staff. By William McE. Dye, formerly of the United States Army, and late Colonel of the Egyptian Staff. New York: Atkin & Froust, 1880.

\* The Athenaeum, December 25, 1880. London. "Continental Literature in 1880."

annually produced in this and the three or four countries in Europe most closely connected with us, great as this increase is. In Italy, for instance, Signor A. de Gubernatis, the compiler of a 'Dictionary of Contemporaneous Writers,' estimates the number of living authors to be three thousand, "most of them busy," at least ten times as many as a generation ago. The magnitude of the task is owing chiefly to the indefinite widening of the field of literature. The great intellectual activity which, till a comparatively recent period, has been confined to the English, French, and German peoples, is now manifested in all the nations of the world raised above the state of mere barbarism. The result is a literary production in them of a rapidly increasing extent and significance—of significance, because it is absolutely essential to an understanding of the direction and strength of the forces at work in shaping the political or commercial action of any people that we know the nature and character of its literature. That during the past year the chief work of the writers of Poland and Hungary has been devoted to the history of these countries; that the Bohemian poets and novelists have celebrated heroic deeds of the Slavic race; that there is a noticeable decrease in the interest in the materialist philosophy in Russia, are facts of more than literary interest. They have an important bearing upon the future of Eastern Europe. For this reason alone, were there no other, the literary historian should closely follow and record the movements of the literatures of the most distant and obscure nations.

Of 1880 it must be said, as of the years immediately preceding it, that while there have been produced many works in all departments of literature, there have been none which deserve to be placed in the front rank. There have been histories, poems, novels, and dramas in great numbers, but none which seemed destined to be read by the next generation. Neither in theology nor science have there been works which mark an era in their progress. Our knowledge of the earth has received no distinct addition through any great work of travels. This is not owing necessarily to a decline in literature, but partly to the fact that, the general standard having been raised, it requires to-day powers greater than were needed twenty-five years ago, or a subject of surpassing interest, to put an author among the great names of literature. In some respects, however, the conditions of the age are not favorable to the production of works of the highest class. The numerous and varied interests which engage the attention of all intelligent persons from day to day, while they increase the knowledge, broaden the sympathies, and add to the wealth of illustration, yet diminish that faculty of concentrating the mind upon a single subject which is essential to the creation of a masterpiece. We are almost shocked at times by the lack of interest betrayed by some leading writer in a subject of the greatest importance, as, for instance, Ruskin's indifference to politics. But his power as a writer in his particular field depends upon his keeping his mind free from the distractions of political questions. It is impossible to follow the different phases of the Irish land question, the social revolt against the Jews in Germany, the settlement of the Greek frontier, or the war in South Africa, and at the same time keep the mental strength undiminished for work in some special department of literature or science. The rapid production into which authors are now tempted by the inducements offered by editors and publishers is also distinctly unfavorable to the production of the best literary work. The careful thought, the painstaking investigation and elaboration which distinguish most works of a high order, are now often sacrificed for immediate effects and gains. Short poems, review articles, studies and sketches in history, literature, and art, are more and more taking the place of finished works. It is partly a cause and partly an effect of this that there is a growing disinclination and actual incapacity in the great majority of persons to read a book which requires time and thought. The only motive which could lead to the necessary exertion is taken away by the certainty that the substance of any important book will be given in a review. It is but natural, therefore, that an increasing number of authors should prefer to give their thoughts or the results of their studies to the public first-hand, even though merely in a magazine article, rather than through the medium of a critic.

Still another cause for this failure of any work of the past year, especially in imaginative literature, to rise above the general level—a failure which is universal, if we may trust the testimony of the writers of the annual literary summaries in the *Athenæum*—may be found in the close intercourse maintained between the different countries. Just as their distinctions in dress, manners, and modes of living are disappearing with the great increase of travel, so is it with the distinctions which have heretofore characterized their literatures. The novel of a popular French author is now read almost simultaneously with its appearance in France by the people of a dozen different nationalities or languages. The French play is not simply the model, but is actually the basis of well-nigh all the dramatic literature of the day. The result is an influence exerted upon the writers of these countries which is gradually destructive of all originality. The realistic school of Zola has its imitators in Italy as well as in Norway, and it is merely by a slight local coloring that the novelist of the one country can be distinguished from the novelist of the other. With one important exception, it seems as if the imaginative literature of nearly

every people was being formed upon a single model, and that, in some respects, the very worst which could be chosen. The one exception is poetry. Here the French genius appears to be at its lowest ebb. M. Masson, in his long review of the past year's works, finds but a single poem—that of Victor Hugo—worthy even of mention. It is significant, possibly, of the power and extent of the French influence that from every country, with the possible exception of Bohemia, there is reported a falling off in the number or character of poetic works. The fact of this influence, especially when considered in its effect upon those nations whose literatures are now being created, as it were, and have no foundation of some great poem or writer, some "well of English undefiled," to infuse his strength and originality into the new works, is one of the most discouraging signs of the universal mental activity of the present time.

As it has been said of the literature of ancient Greece, "the period of creative genius was followed by one of mere erudition," so may we speak of this age; or, as a French author puts it, "the nineteenth century might well be called the age of encyclopædias." Knowledge in the most condensed form, and of every conceivable subject, is offered in dictionaries, in numberless series of hand-books, in primers of science, literature, art, history, and biography, and in periodicals devoted to special subjects. The greatest activity prevails, as is natural, in the domain of history. The governments and the great societies, especially of England, France, and Spain, are adding yearly immense stores to the collection of historical material, in the publication of old and new documents, records, and state papers. Cities and towns, in increasing numbers, are following the example, with the result that the writing of a comprehensive history of any country or period or place is fast becoming a task too great even for men with the powers of assimilation of Gibbon or Macaulay, so vast is the amount of material which must be mastered before the work of writing can begin. It is possible that all history, except that confined within the most narrow limits, will in future be written, as the 'Memorial History of Boston,' now in process of publication, or the projected history of the United States—by a number of writers, each taking some definite topic, the whole mosaic having some kind of unity given it by an editor. This, however, is rather the compilation of an encyclopædia than the writing of history in the true sense of the word.

Another characteristic of the literature of the day, and a sign at the same time of its want of originality, is the amount of attention given to writers of a past age. In England the Rabelais, Villon, and Wordsworth societies, in addition to the Chaucer, Shakspeare, and Early English Text societies, show the direction which these studies are taking. In France and Spain this tendency is even more marked than in England, while the entire literature of Portugal seems at present to be devoted to the worship of Camoens. There can be little doubt that the influence of these studies upon the Spanish mind will be in the highest degree favorable, as the movement is largely directed to the study of the classic authors and the early historians and annalists. It is an interesting fact that while the students at Oxford are reproducing Aristophanes, their fellows at Madrid have "acted, at the Teatro Español, Plautus's 'Captives' with singular success." The aspect is not so hopeful in France as in the other countries. There are, speaking generally, two schools, the one giving its whole attention to the republication and illustration of the mysteries, miracle plays, fabliaux, etc., of the Middle Ages, the other to the literature of the past two centuries. By this means many works are revived which had better have been left in the well-merited oblivion into which they had sunk, and authors are brought to life, as it were, to work the same moral ruin which they wrought a hundred years ago. Though this same charge cannot be brought against the English reprints of obscure writers, yet there is a certain triviality and lack of robustness about many of their works which cannot but have a belittling effect upon their enthusiastic admirers.

In a few countries the historical novel has been the predominant form which works of fiction have taken, but in the most they have been generally studies of life, chiefly among the lower classes. Especially noteworthy is the position which women hold in this department of literature. The leading novelists of England, Spain, and Belgium are the late George Eliot, the late Fernán Caballero, and Virginia Loveling, and in France and Germany, in the popular favor at least, Henry Gréville and Ernst Werner. In the other European countries, though none can make such rightful pretensions to the first rank among the authors of the day, yet of most of them it may be said, as Vámbéry says of his Hungarian countrywomen, "they have become conspicuous by their talents and literary merit." Short lyrics, *vers de société*, songs, and, here and there, a drama in verse have been the prevailing forms of the poetry of the period, with the exception that in Bohemia the epic is cultivated with some success. In Belgium, art appears to occupy a more prominent place in literature than in any other country, yet Germany and Austria do not fall far behind. Theological works, though the amount produced may not have materially diminished, no longer engage the public attention as they did formerly. This is owing to various causes, among which may be noted the absence of burning questions, and the fact that the field is more and more confined to the religious newspapers and periodicals. To a certain extent the same is



true of science. Possibly the present generation will not see again the unprecedented activity and productiveness which marked the scientific literature of a few years ago. The memoirs of Mme. de Rémusat, Prince Metternich, and Kossuth have possessed a higher interest than most works of their class, probably more on account of the subjects and times of which they treat than for their intrinsic merits. Regarding the literature of the year as a whole, it cannot be doubted that the historical studies in nearly every country have been prosecuted with the most vigor and success.

*Horace's Odes.* Horace's Odes, Englished and imitated by various hands. Selected and arranged by Charles W. F. Cooper. (London: G. Bell.)—This is at once an interesting and a disappointing book. The list of translators given in the Contents includes a large number of famous, or at least well-known, names: Sir P. Sidney, Ben Jonson, Cowley, Herrick, Crashaw, A. Marvel, Milton, Dryden, Addison, Pope, Roscommon, N. Rowe, Swift, Congreve, Dr. Johnson, Cowper, Beattie, Leigh Hunt, and, again, Evelyn, Sir C. Sedley, Sir W. Temple, Sir C. Hanbury Williams, Atterbury, Creech, Wakefield, Wrangham, besides two women, Aphra Behn and Anna Seward. Of professed translators samples are given from Barten Holyday, Fanshawe, Hawkins, Alex. Brome, J. Ashmore, J. Smith, Creech, Francis, Duncombe, Broome, and Boscawen; and these, as almost forgotten by the reader of Conington or Theodore Martin, have an interest of their own, particularly the earlier amongst them, such as those of Fanshawe and Holyday. If, indeed, the specimens given from Fanshawe are typical of the general goodness of his version, a complete reprint would be acceptable to most students of Horace. Unlike the long paraphrases which Cowley, Dryden, and Addison made too fashionable, Fanshawe is condensed and nervous. Take the end of iii. 11:

"One only worthy Hymen's flame,  
And worthy of immortal fame,  
Her perjur'd father (pious child!)  
Bravely beguil'd;

"Who said to her young husband, 'Wake!  
Lest an eternal sleep thou take  
When least thou lookest: deceive my sire  
And sisters dire,

"Who like so many tigers tear  
(Alas!) the prey: I, tenderer,  
Will neither slay nor keep thee thus  
In th' slaughter-house,

"Me let my savage father chain,  
Because my husband is unslain,  
Or into farthest Africa  
Ship me away;

"By land or sea, take thou thy flight,  
Cover'd with wings of love and night;  
Go, go, and write when thou art safe  
My epitaph!"

Contrast this with Cowley's paraphrase of iv. 2:

"Findar is imitable by none;  
The phoenix Findar is a vast species alone," etc.,

or with Addison's of iii. 3:

"The man resolv'd and steady to his trust,  
Inflexible to all and obstinately just,  
May the rude rabble's insolence despise,  
Their senseless clamors and tumultuous cries"—

and we shall see what makes the disappointment of Mr. Cooper's volume: there is too much paraphrase and too little translation. Lord Lytton hardly exaggerated when he said that there is scarcely a man of letters who has not at one time or other translated or imitated some of the odes; and if Mr. Cooper had selected from this countless variety of versions a larger proportion of close renderings instead of the verbose paraphrases, which for a single success like Dryden's celebrated expansion of iii. 29 present a dozen failures, his book would, we think, have been more satisfactory. The same thing may be said of the second half of which the book is made up, the imitations and parodies. There are too many of them. Some, indeed, have the merit of antiquity, and are interesting as recalling the seventeenth or eighteenth centuries; but what pleasure can this generation be expected to find in the artificial smartness of the parodies of the first two books published by James and Horace Smith in 1813? In a word, Mr. Cooper's idea is a good one, and it has been carried out not badly, but if it had been more rigorously defined and the selection made on a more determined principle, and, we must add, with a more enlarged examination, we should not have had to deplore that so much of the volume is uninteresting or even unreadable.

*Histoire du Costume au Théâtre depuis les origines du théâtre en France jusqu'à nos jours.* Par Adolphe Jullien. (Paris: G. Charpentier; New York: J. W. Bouton. 1880. Quarto, pp. xii.-356.)—This is an interesting and valuable work upon a subject which has hitherto been comparatively slighted. The author is well known as one of the most erudite of investigators into the history of the stage, and as a musical critic who has paid special attention to the annals of opera in France. The present volume seems to have been suggest-

ed either by his researches in the ample archives of the Paris Opéra or by the drawings and pictures of performers in costume exhibited in the unique Exposition Théâtrale which the Opéra opened in the Paris Exhibition of 1878, and which was described at length by a correspondent of the *Nation*. This source of inspiration has united with M. Jullien's special study of the eighteenth century to limit the scope of his work, which accordingly is not so much a history of stage costume from the beginning of the theatre in France to our own time as it is a chronological sketch of the dresses used on the French stage, especially at the Opéra and especially in the eighteenth century. For example, all of the twenty-seven illustrations are taken from drawings or prints in the archives of the Opéra. They are none the less valuable or interesting on this account, of course; indeed many of them, nor these of least value, could not be found elsewhere. But the fact that one institution furnished all the pictorial embellishments of the volume serves to mark emphatically its limitations. Of the fourteen chapters, only one considers the dresses of any stage but the French. This exceptional chapter is the Fourteenth, which treats of the reforms in stage costume made by George Anne Bellamy, Macklin, and John Philip Kemble.

Here we may remark, by the way, that it is a constant wonder to an American reader of French theatrical writings why the erratic and rather worthless Bellamy is held in such repute by French critics. M. Jullien, for instance, speaks of her (p. 205) as a "talent hors ligne." English and American writers give her no such eulogy. The explanation is to be found, we take it, in the fact that the memoirs which she wrote, or had written for her, and which are of no great value, were translated for the French series of dramatic biographies, and that it fell to the lot of M. Thiers, then a beginner in literature and a critic of art and the drama, to write the introductory notice. Although M. Jullien seems better informed about the English stage than most French theatrical writers, the undue prominence he gives to the accidental improvements of Mrs. Bellamy, and the way in which he totally ignores the important and decisive labors of the late J. R. Planché, show how little reliance can be placed on any part of his work save that which relates to the French stage. There is no pretence, to be sure, of considering the costumes of the German stage or of the Italian.

Estimated solely as a history of costume in the theatres of Paris, M. Jullien's work is, as we began by saying, both interesting and valuable. Unduly increased in bulk by needless biographies, it yet finds room to trace carefully the complete change from the exaggerated and impossible costumes of the time of Louis XIV., each distinguished by conventional attributes which the spectator recognized and acknowledged, to the dresses of the present time, when actors strive with each other in the most exact and prosaic reproduction of reality. It is scarcely possible for any one accustomed to the attempts at accuracy seen in the theatres of to-day to imagine how extraordinarily out of the way the costumes were in which, for example, the Roman tragedies of Corneille were acted for the first time. How preposterously actors were arrayed even a century later can be seen in M. Jullien's reproduction of a water-color of 1750 showing a pair of "Grecs en habit sérieux," male and female. In this drawing it is difficult to see a single attempt at the reproduction or even indication of the raiment or personal adornment of the Greek or Roman of any age. The costume is all fuss and feathers, flounces, and ballet-skirts and gewgaws; and the male is more overlaid than the female. It was Lekain and finally Talma who succeeded in driving these abominations off the stage. How injurious such misrepresentations might be can be judged from a passage which M. Jullien (p. 147, note) copies from Goethe, who tells us that he got his first idea of Homer from a French prose version containing engravings in which the figures were costumed as on the French stage, and that these engravings gave him so false a view that it was long before he could call up Homer's heroes in any other attire.

A great many amusing anecdotes and incidents are scattered through M. Jullien's pages. For example, we are told that in 1790 the demons and the zephyrs of the Opéra had to wear the tricolor cocard, and that even the robe of *Andromache* and the helmet of *Minerva* must be decked with the national colors. Again, it is not without interest to be reminded of Mme. Dorval's appearance in 1833 as the *Phèdre* of Pradon in a Louis XIV. costume such as the original actress of the part might have worn. An engraving of Talma as *Hamlet* shows him clad in a fur cloak.

*Extracts from Chordal's Letters.* (New York: Machinist Publishing Co.)—This little volume contains a series of papers written in an easy and popular style on mechanical and other kindred topics, and originally published in the *American Machinist*. They are of a wholly disjointed character, often treating of a variety of subjects in the same letter, and passing abruptly from one subject to another which apparently has no connection with it. They contain a good many valuable practical hints and much sound advice to mechanics. Not many people will care to read this book through consecutively, but any one interested in the class of subjects of which it treats can dive into it here and there with amusement and profit.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ayres (A.), The Orthopist.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)	\$1 50
Bascom (Prof. J.), Natural Theology.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
Bryan (Rev. T. D.), Sermons to Students and Thoughtful Persons.....	(Charles Scribner's Sons)	1 25
Burgoyne (F. de), The Lost Casket.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Boyson (Prof. H. H.), Hike on the Hill Top.....	(Charles Scribner's Sons)	1 00
Coppin (H.), Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors, 2 vols.....	(Little, Brown & Co.)	1 25
Cossa (L.), Guide to the Study of Political Economy.....	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
De Kay (C.), The Vision of Nimrod: Poems.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)	1 25
Deshairst (W. W.), History of Saint-Augustine, Fla.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
Earle (Rev. J.), English Plant Names.....	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
Flaubert (G.), Madame Bovary.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	1 25
Godet (Prof. F.), Commentary on St. Luke.....	(J. K. Funk & Co.)	1 25
Green (J. R.), Essays of Joseph Addison.....	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
Graville (H.), Trials of Rassa, swd.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	75
Guichard (F.), Dessein de D. oration.....	(J. W. Bouton)	1 25
Hammond (Dr. W. A.), Certain Conditions of Nervous Derangement.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 75
Handy Book of Synonyms.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Hudson (Rev. H. S.), Shakspeare's Richard III.....	(Ginn & Heath)	
King Henry I., Parts 1, 2.....	"	
Henry V. and Henry VIII.....	"	
Henry IV., Parts 1, 2.....	"	
Lamb (Mrs. J.), History of the City of New York, vol. II., Parts 13-16, swd.....	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	
Lewis (F. A., Jr.), Law relating to Stocks, Bonds, etc.....	(Rees, Welsh & Co.)	
Leroy (L.), Les Pensionnaires du Louvre, swd.....	(J. W. Bouton)	
Mason (L. W.), National Hymn and Tune Book, 2 vols.....	(Ginn & Heath)	1 00
McCarthy (T.), Pictures from Ireland.....	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Miller (W. J.), Notes concerning the Wampanoag Tribe.....	(S. S. Rider)	3 00
Munro (W. H.), History of Bristol, R. I.....	(J. A. & R. A. Reid)	1 00
Noyes (S. B.), Catalogue of the Brooklyn Library, Part 3, N-Z.....	(Brooklyn)	1 00
Oliphant (Mrs.), Cervantes.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 00
Palastre (J.), La Renaissance en France, Parts 1-3, swd.....	(J. W. Bouton)	1 50
Parlow (Maria), New Cook-Book.....	(Estes & Lauriat)	1 00
Porter (Mary W.), Five Little Southerners.....	(D. Lothrop & Co.)	2 00
Richardson (Mrs. A. S.), English Literature.....	(Jensen, McClurg & Co.)	7 50
Riess (W.) and Stöbel (A.), Necropolis of Ancon in Peru, Part 1, swd.....	(Lodd, Mead & Co.)	
Rosenstengel (Prof. W. H.), German Reader for High-Schools.....	(G. I. Jones & Co.)	
Salter (W. J.), Memoirs of Joseph W. Pickett.....	(James Loce)	
Science for All, Parts 15, 17, 18, swd.....	(Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.)	
Smart (H.), Belles and Kingers: a Tale.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	50
Stoddard (C. W.), Mashallah! A Flight into Egypt, swd.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)	25
Theuriet (A.), All Alone: a Tale, swd.....	"	
Vapereau (G.), Dictionnaire des Contemporains, Part 10, swd.....	(F. W. Christern)	
Von Hillem (Wilhelmine), Kreutene: a Tale, 2 vols.....	(W. S. Gottsberger)	
Young (R.), Analytical Concordance to the Bible.....	(J. K. Funk & Co.)	4 00

## Fine Arts.

## THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.

THE present water-color exhibition—the fourteenth of the Society—which opened last week at the Academy of Design, is entitled to the praise earned by its two or three immediate predecessors, and may be truthfully said to testify to a general progress in the art illustrated. Almost all the practitioners of it who exhibit their work here from year to year have one after another succumbed to the inevitable, and, abandoning reluctantly the cherished notion that the capabilities of oil and of water-colors are identical, have ranged themselves tardily but definitively upon the side of the rest of the world. Judging from the present aspect of the Academy, the demand for "Chinese white" this year must have been inconsiderable compared with former seasons; and though the steady tendency towards a rational technique was plain a year ago, it is now still more marked, and indeed one may almost affirm that it has finally become as popular as it was once—in effect, at least, and not so very long ago—esteemed arbitrary and whimsical. To acknowledge, however, that the essence of water-color art—the reason for its existence at all—is something so different from what is meant by the art of painting that to employ the same means in it is idle, is but a step towards an interesting exhibition. It is "encouraging" but insufficient. After one becomes persuaded of the futility of enduing a water-color drawing with depth of tone and richness of color, properly so-called, by the superimposition of layers of opaque pigment, there is the further necessity of learning how to deal with transparent color so that it shall have the crisp *staccato* which is the charm of its successful employment. This step, as the present display bears convincing witness, has yet to be taken by the body of our water-color draughtsmen. Indeed, in a majority of instances, though an examination betrays the fact that the primary requisite of transparent color has been secured, an examination is needed to discover it; it is used in so perfunctory a way in many of the drawings as to recall the naïf boast of a prominent Academician (some years ago far in advance of most of his contemporaries in this matter) that he had got his effect "without using a particle of body-color." Others are equally unsuccessful from lack of a really sincere perception of the end the art aims at. After all, what does it matter to the spectator whether a water-color drawing looks like a weak work in oil or like colored lithography? The former resemblance used to predominate at the Academy, but since it has been succeeded by the predominance of the latter the general aspect of the exhibition is fully as depressing to the sense as it is "encouraging" in the progress it evinces. The handling of transparent color is so little less important than the exclusive use of it that it is, perhaps, stretching a point to regard this improvement with anything like exhilaration. To the vast majority of the water-colorists such a work as the little Kaemmerer in the corridor (539) is still to be commended as an example. It is the contribution, doubtless, of a dealer, and only exhibited with a mercantile purpose; but the skill with which its delicate hues are allowed to spread themselves, as it were, over the paper is adapted, considering its surroundings, to the performance of a missionary service as well.

Nowhere, to be sure, do the design and execution of a work of art touch each other so closely as in water-color draughtsmanship; at all events, it may

be said that in no other branch of art is the conception of so little value if unassisted by adequate technique: the ideal water-color is indeed the genius of technique. Consequently to commend the cleverness of such a man as Kaemmerer to painters whose work shows just as much, and no more, technical cleverness than practice could give any one, is perhaps unfair, and certainly has a sound of irony. But the main cause for the dominant character of the exhibition is not so much the awkwardness with which in so many instances the material is handled as the essential aimlessness which this is used to express. A quick impression, a really genuine effect, is as rare as the memorandum-like treatment which a true water-color subject demands. Even the foreigners are in less force than usual. Two Viberts in the West Room are hardly to be mentioned with the Kaemmerer referred to, as brilliant exceptions to the prevailing sobriety of interest; neither are those generally trustworthy supports, Simoni and Simonetti, to be relied upon this year. This weakness is in a measure recompensed by Mr. Blum, who can create Spanish-Roman effects with Spanish-Roman means as well as if to the manner born. Several of his drawings are not only very clever—to be good water-colors they must be that, of course—but inspiring in a less material sense, and showing so strong a natural bent on the part of the draughtsman to do precisely this kind of thing in precisely this way that the reproach of imitation is clearly undeserved. On the other hand, Mr. Blum's work is not to be called strikingly original; but we suppose that since Fortuny and his school so amended the art of painting in water colors as to have in effect created it, manifestation of originality through this medium has become difficult.

It is not, however, impossible, and in twenty-three contributions, which make the strength of the exhibition, Mr. Winslow Homer goes as far as any one has ever done in demonstrating the value of water-colors as a serious means of expressing dignified artistic impressions, and does it wholly in his own way. The visitor to the Academy will need to be reminded thus forcibly of the most interesting works in the display, since otherwise it is probable that they would escape his observation altogether. They are hung (with two exceptions, we believe, both of which are high) on the sky line, over doors and in corners, where it is perhaps possible to see them but where one would scarcely think of looking for them. The hanging committee, it may be observed in passing, look at water-color painting in a different way from Mr. Homer; but they are in so large a majority that one would think nothing need have been feared from a closer juxtaposition to his works, and people of taste and ill-nature will be sure to conceive him studiously ill-treated. Nevertheless, the drawings themselves will repay the neck-stretching discomfort involved in inspecting them. They are almost altogether marine sketches—memoranda, reminiscences, what not; row-boats, cat-boats, schooners, lying lazily upon or scudding through the rarely-troubled waters along the southern New England coast. In each some transient landscape effect is distinctly the object of the drawing. Those which accentuate the points in the frieze of the East Room where they occur show a remarkable evenness of interest and variety of scheme and effect. One of the best in atmospheric effect is a foggy view on the west wall; two at the south end of the room are beautifully soft and bright and clear in glancing reflections; and the two over the door leading into the North Room are not less interesting, though wholly different—one of them showing in treatment a certain daintiness, not to say elegance, uncommon in Mr. Homer's work. If we were to suggest blemishes we should say that, as a rule, the defect of their treatment consisted in the sturdy disregard of elegance characteristic of the robust genius of the artist. But this is plainly hazardous. How much of Mr. Homer's strong individuality is due to this very neglect of elegance may be a question with those who are not careful to avoid conventions absolutely and recognize that Mr. Homer's qualities are nothing if not positive. Doubtless such unkempt handling as that shown in his moonlight scene (540) is subtly consistent with such vigorous effectiveness as his "Sunset" (578), which hangs in the southeast upper corner of the corridor—a singular situation for the most striking thing in the exhibition. Taken together, the drawings emphasize the fact, already perhaps sufficiently acknowledged, that, notwithstanding his considerable performance, it is what he will do hereafter, rather than what he has hitherto done, that one thinks of in connection with Mr. Homer's work.

Nothing else tempts us to linger unduly over the exhibition. Mr. Currier sends a number of his characteristic "impressions," which are, for the most part, treated with contumely in respect of position, and which are in cleverness and ugliness exactly like his last year's contributions, which being to us novelties created great excitement; now that they are no longer a sensation they will probably be admired according to individual inclination towards what is clever but ugly. The "Beach-tree" (241) is a little too much of a puzzle, but may be solved. Mr. Wyant has an "important" landscape that is attractive as well, and Mr. W. T. Richards two, to which the first epithet only can be applied, and which suggest geological surveys rather than pictures. There is, it may here be remarked parenthetically, a great deal of careful draughtsmanship and cleanly-applied coloring, which would delight the soul of an architect ill-served in this respect—Mr. Hawley's cathedrals for a notable exam-



ple. Mr. Chase sends a head of a young woman, so deftly executed as to draw admiring attention to its execution. Mr. F. S. Church is well and abundantly represented. Mr. Murphy sticks to his landscape a little too closely to promise well for the permanence of our interest in him; and the same thing in effect was long ago true of Mr. Colman, and is here needlessly emphasized, it seems to us. There is nothing from Mr. La Farge or Mr. Julian Weir. On the other hand there are nineteen works by Mr. Shurtleff, seventeen by Mr. G. H. McCord, fourteen each by Mr. Bricher and Mr. Quartley, and so on. The exhibition loses by the elimination of the usual black-and-white display, absorbed this year by the Salmagundi Club; there is one less element of variety, and variety is the great need of the exhibition.

#### THE ARTISTS' FUND EXHIBITION.

THE Artists' Fund Society have their twenty-first annual exhibition this week in the large room of the Academy of Design. It is, as usual, the most characteristic exhibition of what used to be called "the American School of painting." But the present display affords evidence of the inroads that are being made upon even their strongly entrenched position. To some extent it betrays a quality for which the "School" has been little remarkable—elasticity, namely. Not only is the exhibition, as a whole, more modern-looking, so to speak, but such metamorphosis as there is to be noticed is in part due to the older members themselves as well as to the infusion of young blood. Few of the more recent members, for example, could have painted the portrait by Mr. John F. Weir on the south wall, which is, nevertheless, directly in the line of their effort. Indeed, it has a curious technical resemblance to the work of Mr. Julian Weir, and indicates that, in at least this instance, only the will was necessary to work an entire change in both aim and method. It is an extremely agreeable picture in every way, but it is perhaps most noteworthy technically. A charming young woman, clad wholly in black, stands against the old-gold background of a curtain, which she pulls aside with her right hand in order to glance past it at some object of interest beyond. The whole is pleasantly picturesque, but the way in which the different blacks are painted—the felt hat, lace *fichu*, velvet trimming, dress, undressed kid, and so on—is striking. A landscape by the same hand is much

less interesting, but shows the same tendency to create effects rather than photograph detail. Among the new exhibitors Mr. Thayer, Mr. Diehlman, and Mr. Douglas Volk make the strongest showing. A bit of still life by the first-named is perhaps more solidly painted than anything he has hitherto shown here, and his portrait at the west end of the room, though incomparable with his contribution to the Academy Exhibition last spring, which it nevertheless recalls, is very chaste and sweet and quiet, and has a touch such as no other painter, given the same sitter, would be able to get, one may confidently affirm. Mr. Diehlman's cornfield is less successful than his small portrait of a lady in relief against an Indian-red curtain; and longer practice at painting from the model than at catching the indefiniteness of landscape is doubtless to be credited with the latter's superiority. Mr. Volk's child asleep in the arms of a nurse, of whom the ultra-Ethiopian hands alone are visible, is as strongly painted as it is unpleasant, which to our mind is saying a good deal for its execution. The less ambitious sea-shore study is quite as telling and much more agreeable. Mr. Macy clings to his general method with a persistency which testifies to the hold Munich has obtained upon him, though this time he has varied his subject considerably. Mr. Guy, Mr. Eastman Johnson, and Mr. Hicks are characteristically represented—a remark which of itself should convey an accurate enough idea of their several works—but we may direct attention to the pleasing linear design of Mr. Guy's picture, of which only the sentiment and the "quality" are so obvious as to be at once remarked. Among the landscapes Mr. Martin's is easily the most attractive; it is a "Woodland Brook," and so rich in color as to make it no particular disparagement of the other pictures here to say that it is the only distinctly decorative thing in the room. A brook flows down the centre of the canvas, overhung with branches of shimmering greenness whose hues and tremulous forms are answered by vaguer reflections beneath, and beyond, on the further bank, is a dense mass of foliage without any outlook, but pricked to a brighter yellow here and there by the light which sifts through it. Color is so evidently its main reliance that the emphasis of it involved in the pallor immediately surrounding it might have been dispensed with advantageously; as it is, its neighbors, though they are themselves effaced, give it by contrast a superfluous warmth.

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